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THE INTERACTION OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS

STAPHYLOPHAGE 7 AND ANTIBIOTICS,

IN VITRO AND IN VIVO

by

LESLIE ATHIEL HOWARD

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

DEPARTMENT OF BACTERIOLOGY

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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and
recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance,
a thesis entitled THE INTERACTION OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS
STAPHYLOPHAGE 7 AND ANTIBIOTICS, IN VITRO AND IN VIVO
submitted by Leslie Athiel Howard in partial fulfilment of
of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

ABSTRACT

The growth of Staphylococcus aureus PS7 infected with staphylococcus bacteriophage 7 was examined at 37°C. Efficient lysis of suspensions of this bacterial strain by Ø7 in nutrient broth required the addition of CaCl₂ in concentrations greater than 75 µg/ml. One-step growth experiments indicated a burst size of ca. 95. Absorbance determinations at 600 mµ were used to show the extent to which the turbidity of log-phase suspensions of S. aureus PS7 was influenced by Ø7 in the presence of the following antibiotics: penicillin, vancomycin, bacitracin, D-cycloserine and chloramphenicol. When added immediately after penicillin, bacitracin or D-cycloserine, Ø7 was able to effect lysis and reduce the absorbance of suspensions of S. aureus PS7 to half the initial value in a shorter period of time than could either Ø7 or antibiotic alone. Chloramphenicol produced no such reduction in turbidity during a comparable period of observation (4 - 5 hours) at 37°C. When Ø7 was added immediately after vancomycin, lysis of S. aureus PS7 was inhibited. However, if the addition of Ø7 preceded vancomycin by 10 minutes, efficient lysis occurred and a half-lysis time less than that for either Ø7 or vancomycin alone was obtained. Using a Ø:cell ratio of 1:40, the adsorption rate of Ø7 to S. aureus PS7 was found to be 85%, 95% and ca. 100% complete in 2½, 5 and 10 minutes respectively. The rate and extent of adsorption was not affected by the presence of the antibiotics penicillin, vancomycin, bacitracin, D-cycloserine and chloramphenicol. Because S. aureus PS7 was not lethal for mice except at doses in

the order of 10^{10} cfu, another strain of coagulase-positive staphylococcus, S. aureus 19, selected for its lethality on intraperitoneal inoculation in mice ($LD_{50} = 2.9 \times 10^7$ cfu) and for its ability to act as host for Ø7, was used to determine the extent to which each of the antibiotics chloramphenicol, vancomycin, penicillin and oxacillin, in combination with Ø7, influenced the survival of infected mice. Statistical analysis of the results did not permit the conclusion that Ø7 and antibiotics interact to provide additive protection when given immediately after intraperitoneal inoculation of mice with S. aureus 19. Such an inference is however suggested by the data obtained when the infecting dose of S. aureus 19 was ca. 8.8×10^8 cfu, the Ø:cell ratio was ca. 3:1 and the chloramphenicol, vancomycin, penicillin and oxacillin doses were 1000 µg, 200 µg, 1000 µg, and 2000 µg respectively. Here, all the mice receiving Ø7 plus antibiotic showed a greater number of survivors than those receiving Ø7 or antibiotic alone. It seems likely that significant interaction was not demonstrated because the sample unit (10 mice) was too small.

A 15-minute delay in the administration of Ø7 following intraperitoneal inoculation of mice with S. aureus PS7 resulted in considerable loss of protective action. This loss of protective action appeared to be unaffected by the presence of antibiotics. Mice which were pretreated with 500 units of antitoxin (Connaught, Canada) prior to infection with S. aureus 19 showed a significant delay in the onset of death.

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I would also like to express thanks to the drug distributors listed in Appendix I for the gift of antibiotics used in this investigation.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND DEFINITIONS

Amax	- maximum absorbance
Bacit.	- bacitracin
cfu	- colony-forming units
Chloramph.	- chloramphenicol
D-cyclos.	- D-cycloserine
EOP	- efficiency of plating
Oxac.	- oxacillin
Pen.	- penicillin
pfu	- plaque-forming units
RTD	- routine test dilution
$t_{\frac{1}{2}}$	- half-lysis time = time required for absorbance to return to half its initial value
ti	- time required for absorbance to return to its initial value
\emptyset	- phage, bacteriophage
$\emptyset:\text{cell}$	- pfu:cfu

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I

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

Since the discovery of bacterial viruses by Twort (92) and d'Herelle (13), early workers including d'Herelle himself directed their attention to use of bacteriophages in the treatment of bacterial infections. The early literature abounds with references to attempts made at the clinical level to cure a variety of bacterial infections, including those caused by staphylococci, dysentery, and cholera, by means of bacteriophages. The reported results of much of this early work are highly equivocal and difficult to evaluate.

The advent of antibiotics and the remarkable success which these had as chemotherapeutic agents resulted in the virtual abandonment of work directed towards the investigation of bacterial viruses as antibacterial agents capable of being applied therapeutically. However, the emergence and spread of antibiotic-resistant bacteria, as well as the occurrence of many chronic and refractory infections, especially those due to staphylococci, has prompted some renewal of interest in bacteriophages as possible therapeutic adjuncts.

It is generally accepted that clinical application of a new method of therapy, for example a new antibacterial agent, should be preceded by thorough laboratory investigations both with respect to its mechanism of action in vitro as well as to its evaluation in vivo through the use of experimental animals. The history of the use of bacteriophages

for chemotherapeutic purposes shows that this process of laboratory investigation prior to clinical usage has not been strictly adhered to. Probably because early workers such as Larkum (51) found bacteriophage lysates were innocuous or because of urgent need, extensive clinical use was made of these lysates for therapy before a sufficiently satisfactory explanation for their in vitro and in vivo mode of action had evolved. Even to-day, despite the vast amount of information which has accumulated on bacteriophages and viruses, and the many and sophisticated techniques which have been developed for their investigation, knowledge pertinent to the in vivo interaction of bacteriophages and bacteria cannot, even with much generosity, be described as adequate.

The present study using staphylophage 7 and Staphylococcus aureus PS7 in vitro, and Staphylococcus aureus 19 in vivo in mice, was undertaken in an attempt to gain some understanding of the modus operandi of bacteriophages and bacteria in relation to therapy and to examine the influence of some antibiotics in this interaction.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of reviews of the early literature on bacteriophage therapy have appeared, the most comprehensive being those of Eaton and Bayne-Jones (16), Krueger and Scribner (45), and Morton and Engley (59).

In this review, two main aspects of the literature will be presented; first the clinical use of bacteriophages will be discussed, and then consideration will be given to those experiments performed in vivo and in vitro which have attempted to provide an acceptable rationale for the use of bacteriophage lysates in the therapy of bacterial infections. In addition, some attention will be given to the study of experimental staphylococcal infections and other topics which provide a suitable background for understanding the interactions involved in the complex systems under investigation.

Bacteriophage in the treatment of staphylococcal infections.

According to Eaton and Bayne-Jones (16) a great number of the favorable results of bacteriophage therapy have come from the use of this agent in staphylococcal infections. MacNeal and Frisbee (55) have reported favorably on the treatment of staphylococcal septicemia with bacteriophage lysates and ascribed the beneficial effect to augmentation of the immune action of body fluids and phagocytosis. Larkum (52) has presented a summary of a study undertaken by the Michigan Department of Health, under whose auspices the polyvalent Gratia strain of staphylococcus bacteriophage was distributed for therapeutic use. Favorable results were obtained for the treatment of furunculosis, acne, osteo-

myelitis and miscellaneous other staphylococcal diseases. Surgical infections have been subjected to bacteriophage therapy by Bazy (9) who recorded effectiveness especially where staphylococci were involved. Numerous other reports on the use of bacteriophage lysates in the therapy of staphylococcal infections have been summarized in tabular form by Larkum (52), and others have been cited in the reviews of Eaton and Bayne-Jones (16) and of Krueger and Scribner (45), and will not be repeated here.

Despite some favorable claims, the history of the use of staphylococcus bacteriophage in the treatment of disease has recorded many failures, especially where urinary tract infections were involved, as the publication of Krueger, Faber and Schultz (44) shows. A number of these unfavorable reports have been referred to by Elek (17), whose comments reveal a decided lack of enthusiasm for this approach to the treatment of bacterial infections.

Bacteriophage in the treatment of enteric diseases.

The literature on the use of bacteriophages for therapy of enteric diseases is voluminous and difficult to evaluate. The comprehensive review of Morton and Engley (59) would seem to suggest that the results here were even more equivocal than with staphylococcal infections. These authors have drawn attention to the reports most frequently cited either for or against the use of bacteriophages in the treatment of enteric infections. They have criticized these as being in general "unscientific" and have pointed out that in most instances proper controls had not been included and that the data were inadequate for statistical evaluation.

Bacteriophage in the treatment of cholera.

As with staphylococcal and enteric diseases, both favorable and unfavorable reports have appeared on the use of cholera bacteriophages in the treatment of clinical diseases. Dutta and Panse (15) have cited some of the results which have appeared between 1926 and 1945. Shortly after this period the use of bacteriophages for the treatment of cholera was virtually abandoned.

Recently, however, results of a team of Russian workers in East Pakistan and Afghanistan have been reported by Sayamov (76). In this study cholera phage prepared by cultivation on cholera vibrios by alternate passage in the small intestine of guinea pigs and in bile was found to have therapeutic and prophylactic value. Significant improvement was obtained in the majority of over 150 patients treated, and, in seven locations where phage was given prophylactically to over 30,000 people no case of cholera requiring hospitalization occurred. The effectiveness of the Russian materials and methods was later confirmed by Mukerjee (61).

Bacteriophage in animal experiments and in the treatment of experimental staphylococcal infections in mice.

Although for the most part thorough investigations of the suitability of bacteriophages for therapy in laboratory animals have been relatively few, especially when the extensive clinical use which has been made of lysates is considered, some pertinent studies have nevertheless been recorded.

Arnold and Weiss (4) obtained some protective effect by simultaneous injection of bacteriophages and organisms of the typhoid-dysentery

group into mice and rabbits. They showed that a 30-minute delay in the administration of phage was sufficient to abolish its positive influence on the course of the infection. The Rakietens (67) found that developing chick embryos could be protected from death caused by Flexner's bacillus by administration of bacteriophage in the chorioallantois as late as five hours after infection of the embryos. In addition they obtained a correlation between the survival of the embryos and demonstrable proliferation of bacteriophage.

Walker (97) studied the effect of bacteriophage on the size, appearance, and character of lesions produced by intradermal injection of staphylococci into shaven rabbits, and compared the responses with those due to the influence of chemical disinfectants such as phenol and mercuric chloride. He concluded that phage was effective in reducing the size of the lesions produced, over a wider range of dilutions and moreover it was less toxic than the chemicals studied.

The recent revival of interest in bacteriophages as therapeutic agents has prompted investigations using mice infected with staphylococci. Muir and Blakemore (60) studied the effect of staphylophage 81 on the mortality of mice infected intraperitoneally with S. aureus strain 80/81. Using an infecting dose of $1 - 2 \times 10^9$ cfu ($20 - 40 \times LD_{50}$) they observed that mice died in 5 - 6 hours post-infection and that mortality was close to 100%. By treating immediately with staphylophage 81 in a phage:cell ratio of 1:1 they were able to achieve 72% survival, and to show that the degree of protection was related to phage dose.

Bartell et al. (7) with the same staphylococcal and staphylophage

strains essentially confirmed the observations of Muir and Blakemore (60). However, they went on further to demonstrate in vivo interaction of phage and bacteria, as evidenced by the higher and persisting titers of circulating phage in mice infected with S. aureus 80/81 as compared with uninfected or heterologously infected animals. A later study by Bartell et al. (8) confirmed in vivo interaction of bacteria and phage and in addition showed an adsorption period reflected in a drop in the initial levels of circulating phage, with subsequent significant rise of the titre. They obtained maximal protection at a phage:cell ratio of 1:2 and proved that the protective action of the staphylophage lysates was dependent on the presence of active phage particles. Bartell et al. (7) also showed that whereas phage given up to 3 hours before bacteria was still able to protect mice, a reversal of the order of intraperitoneal injection resulted in a rapid decrease in protection, falling to no protection if phage was delayed for half an hour. They also obtained a relation between protective ability and the level of circulatory phage; e.g. when phage concentration was ca. 10^5 pfu/ml protection was good, but it was poor, or absent, at levels less than 10^3 pfu/ml.

Treatment of infections with bacteriophage in combination with other agents.

In many of the studies where bacteriophage had been employed therapeutically, this agent had not been used alone, rather, in addition to standard methods of treatment. This limitation of much of the published work on phage therapy has been pointed out by Elek (17).

The report of MacNeal, Filak and Blevins (54) is the one most often cited as a study directed specifically to the evaluation of

another agent in conjunction with bacteriophage. These authors claim that penicillin and staphylophage are effective in the treatment of osteomyelitis, facial carbuncle and endocarditis. They also report success for the treatment of endocarditis due to streptococci moderately resistant to penicillin, when a combination of penicillin and streptococcus bacteriophage was used.

The immunological approach to bacteriophage treatment.

The observations of d'Herelle in his study of haemorrhagic septicemia in water buffaloes indicated that bacteriophage filtrates were capable of producing immunity. Larkum (51) for example claims that phage lysates were better antigens than the bacterial suspensions themselves. Arnold and Weiss (3) have placed emphasis on the immunological aspects of phage therapy and have demonstrated opsonic, precipitating, and complement-fixing antibodies to bacterial proteins in immune sera prepared from phage lysates.

Immunological mechanisms, both specific and non-specific, have been invoked in order to provide an explanation for the therapeutic action of bacteriophage lysates. It is not surprising therefore that these phage lysates have been used specifically for immunological purposes.

Larkum (51) reports on the use of bacteriophage lysates as a substitute for typhoid vaccines. Mention has already been made of the successful use by Sayamov and Mukerjee (61) of cholera bacteriophage for prophylaxis.

More recent use of bacteriophage lysates in provoking immunity mechanisms was made by Baker (4) who prepared lysates from the wide

spectrum Gratia strain of staphylophage and used them with success, topically and parenterally, for the treatment of allergic and chronically infected patients, and for those with antibiotic-resistant staphylococci. Wittig, Raffetto and Bason (100) conducted a controlled double blind study but were unable to find any significant advantage from the use of Baker's lysate (4) in the treatment of so-called infective asthma in children.

In vitro studies with bacteria, bacteriophage and antibiotics.

Himmelweit (31) proposed that a combination of bacteriophage and penicillin might produce an enhanced effect on susceptible bacteria provided the action of the bacteriophage was not interfered with by the penicillin. Using Staphylococcus aureus S3K he demonstrated that the effect of a combination of penicillin and staphylophage on this organism was at least additive. He also indicated that the difference in the rates of lysis for phage used alone, and phage used in combination with penicillin was more pronounced in logarithmic phase cultures. The conclusions arrived at by Himmelweit (31) were later confirmed by Nicolle and Fauget (64).

A more extensive study of the interaction of Staphylococcus aureus, staphylophage and penicillin was conducted by Krueger *et al.* (43). Working with the K strain of Staphylococcus aureus and staphylophage K, these workers concluded that the time required for the initiation of massive lysis of the cocci by phage was considerably reduced in the presence of penicillin and that the accelerating action was independent

of the concentration of penicillin over a wide range ($0.1 - 1 \times 10^4$ units/ml). Elford (18) essentially confirmed these observations using the same strains of organism and phage. He stated, in addition that concentrations of penicillin far in excess of those inhibitory to growth and acting for longer than the generation time, did not influence the adsorption of phage, and deduced from this that bacteriophage receptor sites were not affected by the antibiotic. Although the normal rate of phage multiplication was reduced, rapid lysis occurred nevertheless, and by control experiments with phage-free ultra-filtrates and with heat-inactivated phage, he confirmed that the lytic phenomenon was dependent on active phage particles. As an explanation of his observations, Elford (18) made the following proposals:

- (1) Penicillin inhibits the growth of the organisms initially not infected with phage so that at each stage lysis in the presence of penicillin produces a proportionately greater reduction in turbidity.
- (2) Cells whose growth has been affected through the action of penicillin, while they no longer support the normal multiplication of phage, are nevertheless equally susceptible to lysis.
- (3) The lytic potencies of penicillin and phage are supplementary.

Experimental staphylococcal infection in mice.

Many studies of experimental staphylococcal infection in animals have been conducted. Smith (83) for example, investigated the effect of intravenously administered S. aureus in 3 - 4 week-old mice and found that the organisms were plentiful in the spleen, but declined over a period of

two weeks. The number of staphylococci in the lungs was found to be initially lower than that in the spleen, although the organisms persisted longer in the lungs. In the kidney the organisms were present at first in small numbers but later there was multiplication with an increase in the population. In addition, Smith (83) showed a correlation between fatality and kidney malfunction as revealed by histological studies and creatinine determinations. McCune, Dineen and Batten (57) also found that high population levels in the kidneys were associated with abscesses and destruction of renal tissue.

The histopathological investigations of Gray et al. (29) confirmed the involvement of the kidneys and showed focal necrosis and mild random interstitial infiltration of polymorphonuclear neutrophils in both cortical and medullary regions with late secondary necrosis of the pelvis of the kidney, and urinary bladder; other organs appeared to be less affected. The liver showed many micro-necrotic foci and some perivascular polymorphonuclear infiltration. The spleen and renal lymph nodes showed hyperplasia of reticulum cells, at first mild but more marked by 10 days post-infection. These histopathological observations of staphylococcal infection in mice are similar to those of Lovel and Cotchi (53) using Corynebacterium renale II; the essential difference arising from use of the two organisms was that whereas with C. renale II the papillary region of the kidney was primarily involved, staphylococcal infection showed in addition abscesses in the cortical and medullary zones.

Gorrill (27) and Smith and Dubos (84) showed the importance of inoculum size in producing experimental infection of staphylococci in

mice. The investigation of Gray et al. (29) suggests that kidney infection is due to the growth of a relatively small percentage of the original inoculum, less than 10^5 cfu being unable to get past the combined phagocytic potential of the neutrophils and reticuloendothelial cells. Sellers and Le Maistre (81) showed that there was a critical number of staphylococci (greater than 10^5 cfu) required intravenously to produce characteristic kidney population curves. The generally accepted view that the fixed macrophages of the liver and spleen play an important part in the removal of intravenously inoculated bacteria was confirmed by Gray et al. (29), and counts suggested these organs were the most efficient in phagocytosis.

The studies of Smith et al. (85) demonstrated the intraperitoneal route was among the most lethal for mice infected with staphylococci. However, with high inocula up to 10^{11} cfu, these workers were unable to reduce the interval between inoculation and death to less than 60 minutes. They showed that death resulted from live cocci but were unable to define a particular target organ as had been suggested by previous workers.

The influence of antibiotics on experimental staphylococcal infection.

Sellers and Le Maistre (81) showed marked antibacterial effect, as a result of 1.5 mg daily dose of penicillin, on S. aureus Sa 235 in mice. There was a significant decrease in the bacterial population of the kidney, although a similar decrease in the spleen, greater than that for the control, did not occur. Sellers and Le Maistre (81) also showed that cortisone caused an increase in bacterial population greater than occurred in the control and that the spleen lost its ability to effect a

decline in the bacterial census, high levels being maintained. McGune, Dineen and Batten (57), using the penicillinase-producing Giorgio strain of Staphylococcus aureus in mice, studied the effect of penicillin, streptomycin and novobiocin on the bacterial populations in the spleen, kidney and lungs. Penicillin alone caused a slight decrease in the bacteria in the kidneys and promoted increased survival of the animals. A more marked effect was obtained with streptomycin. Penicillin and streptomycin together were less effective than streptomycin alone. A similar series of observations was obtained for the bacterial populations in the lung; penicillin showing slight effect, streptomycin showing increased effectiveness, while penicillin plus streptomycin were less effective than streptomycin alone. In the spleen there was also a low order of influence with penicillin; streptomycin alone or in combination with penicillin was able to bring about a marked reduction in the bacterial census of this organ.

An important observation of Sellers and Le Maistre (81) was that despite the effectiveness shown by the drugs singly or in combination, staphylococci persisted in the spleen, kidney and lungs of the majority of the animals even after 28 days of therapy. This continued presence of organisms could not be explained by the emergence of drug resistance in the usual sense.

Failure to eliminate some infectious processes by antibiotic therapy has led to a number of investigations of the fate of intracellular bacteria in the presence of environments containing chemotherapeutic drugs. Baker (5), using mononuclear phagocytes from the pleural

cavity of albino rats in tissue culture, studied the fate of a strain of Staphylococcus aureus when penicillin and streptomycin were present. He concluded that multiplication and death may be occurring simultaneously in populations of intracellular organisms. He also reported that both penicillin and streptomycin showed reduced activity on intracellular organisms. In addition, with the suppression of extracellular growth by the antibiotics, continued phagocytosis resulting in marked increase in the intracellular population of organisms was abolished. Rogers and Tompsett (71) reported multiplication of organisms intracellularly. This view has been challenged by Kapral (35) who presented data to show that virulent staphylococci survived but did not multiply within normal human and rabbit leucocytes, and were actually destroyed by rat leucocytes. Kapral's work however supports the assertion that when an increase in the extracellular population was prevented by antibiotics, continued phagocytosis with increase in the intracellular census, did not occur. Using a continuous flow technique he showed that this limitation of the intracellular population of cocci was not the result of penetration and action of the antibiotics where these were employed. A reasonable explanation for the mechanism of intracellular killing of bacteria in neutrophils has been presented by Hirsch and co-workers (32), who have demonstrated the discharge of lysosomal contents into phagocytic vacuoles.

Binding and distribution of antibiotics in vivo and in vitro.

According to Rolinson (73) "the element of uncertainty regarding the exact role of protein binding in chemotherapy is encountered widely

in the published work, both in reviews and in original papers".

Similar uncertainty in regard to the significance of serum levels of antibiotics to therapy has been expressed.

In general, the combination of antibiotics with serum proteins is reversible, as pointed out by Rolinson and Sutherland (74) and Klotz, Urquhart and Wendell (40). This dynamic state is expressed by Rolinson (72) as follows: "Protein + free antibiotic \rightleftharpoons protein-bound antibiotic". The more important factors influencing the amount of antibiotic bound at any moment are the concentration and nature of both the protein and the drug, pH, and temperature.

The extent of binding of antibiotics has been measured most frequently either by dialysis, as for example by Kunin (46-50), Tompsett et al. (90), and Smith et al. (86), or by ultrafiltration as performed by Sirota and Slatzman (82), Verwey and Williams (96), Keen (36) and Rolinson and Sutherland (74). It may be well to note that both of these physical principles operate in vivo (73).

At the levels generally encountered in the body the extent of binding of antibiotics is almost independent of concentration. Binding, however, decreases with increased concentration in excess of $10^{-4} M$ at which point the majority of the protein-binding sites are occupied, as stated by Rolinson and Sutherland (74).

Rolinson (73) calls attention to the fact that it is the proportion of free drug which is important therapeutically, a point of view also expressed by Goldstein (25) in his statement that "Microbiological

techniques permit direct proof that the potency of an antibacterial drug in the presence of protein is exactly that of its unbound fraction".

Because of the dynamic nature of protein-antibiotic interaction, movement of free antibiotic in the absence of any unusual barrier takes place throughout the extracellular fluid volume of the body wherever a concentration gradient exists. The outcome of such a distribution is a tendency to equilibrium, and although the levels of total antibiotic may be different in the various tissues, the level of free, unbound antibiotic will be the same. This latter concept is enunciated by Scholtan and Schmid (78) in the statement:

....the various organs may show different drug content because of different binding ability of the protein in the organ; on the other hand, independently of this, after achievement of equilibrium the concentration of free drug in the tissues and fluids of all compartments in the body must be equal and identical with the free concentration in the plasma fluids ...

Some drugs are, however, unable to get into every fluid compartment of the body; for example, as stated by Goodman and Gilman (26), penicillin does not pass the blood-brain barrier. Other antibiotics such as chloramphenicol, as shown by Glazko et al. (24) are rapidly inactivated and excreted.

Diagrammatic representation of the distribution of drugs according to the principles defined by Rolinson (72) are presented in Fig. I.

Most of the studies on antibiotic binding have used human or horse sera. It is important therefore that attention be drawn to the

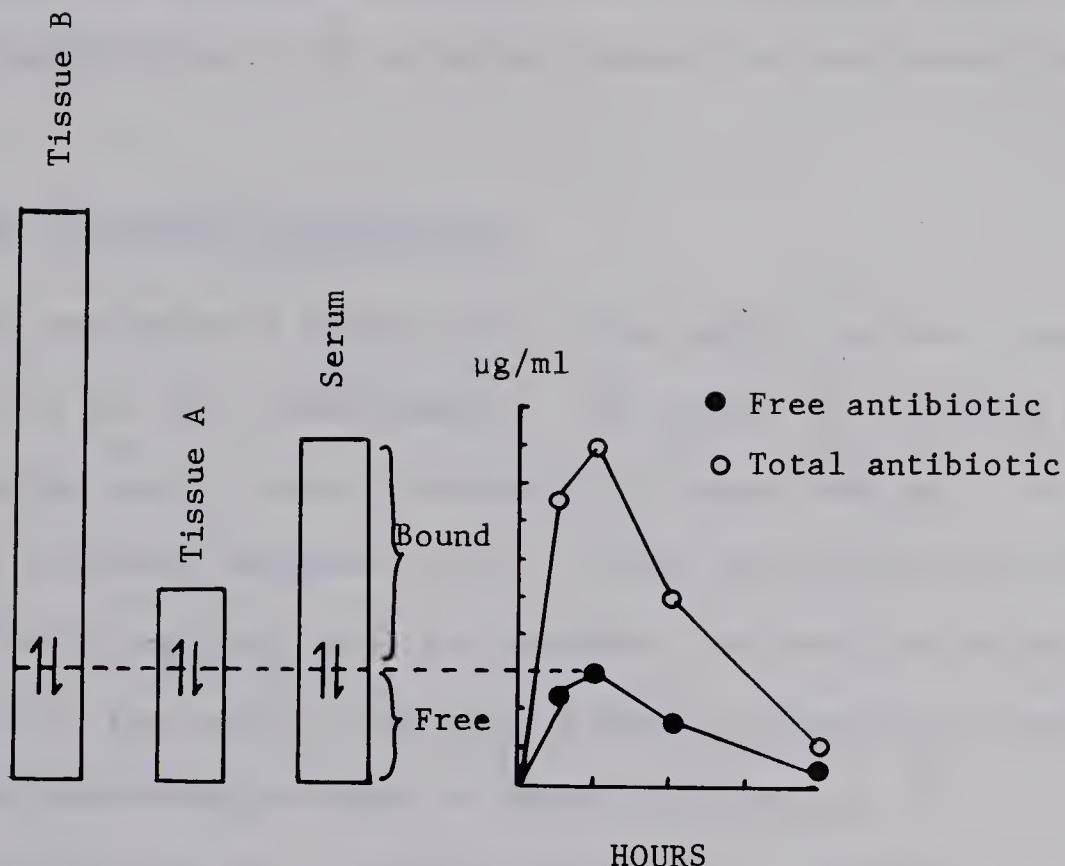


FIGURE 1. Diagrammatic representation of the influence of protein binding on serum and tissue levels of antibiotic.

(Rolinson, 1964. Postgrad. med. J. Suppl. 40:20-22.)

fact that there is great variation in the extent of binding of any given antibiotic in the sera of different animal species (73). In addition, as pointed out by Verwey and Williams (96) the relative binding of different antibiotics in the serum may change from one animal species to another.

Mechanisms of action of antibiotics.

The mechanism of antimicrobial drug action has been a subject of consideration for many investigators. The subject is certainly pertinent to the present study, however because of its magnitude only a brief summary of currently accepted points of view, with particular focus on the antibiotics employed, will be presented. An excellent source of information is the recently concluded Sixteenth Symposium of the Society for General Microbiology edited by Newton and Reynolds (63).

As indicated in a review by Newton (62), antibiotics can be placed in one or more broad categories according to their mode of action, viz.:

1. Antibiotics affecting cell-wall synthesis.
2. Antibiotics affecting cell-membrane synthesis.
3. Antibiotics affecting cell-membrane permeability.
4. Uncoupling agents and inhibitors of electron transport.
5. Inhibitors of nucleotide or of DNA synthesis.
6. Antibiotics affecting the transcription of genetic information.
7. Inhibitors of protein synthesis.

Of the antibiotics used in this study, penicillin, bacitracin,

D-cycloserine, oxacillin and vancomycin belong to the category of those mainly affecting cell-wall synthesis, whereas chloramphenicol, as shown by Gale and Paine (23) and Gale and Folkes (22), inhibits protein synthesis.

The current concept of the reactions involved in the formation of murein, the backbone structure of all bacterial cell walls, is presented in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, from Park (66). D-cycloserine is a competitive inhibitor of D-ala-D-ala ligase and prevents the incorporation of the dipeptide in the pathway leading to the formation of UDP-NAc-muramyl-pentapeptide as demonstrated by Strominger, Ito, and Threnn (89). The work of Anderson et al. (3) demonstrated that bacitracin and vancomycin interfere with the transfer of disaccharide-pentapeptide from phospholipid acceptor to form oligomuropeptide. The report of Wise and Park (97) would seem to indicate the penicillin inhibits the cross-linking reactions involved in the synthesis of murein.

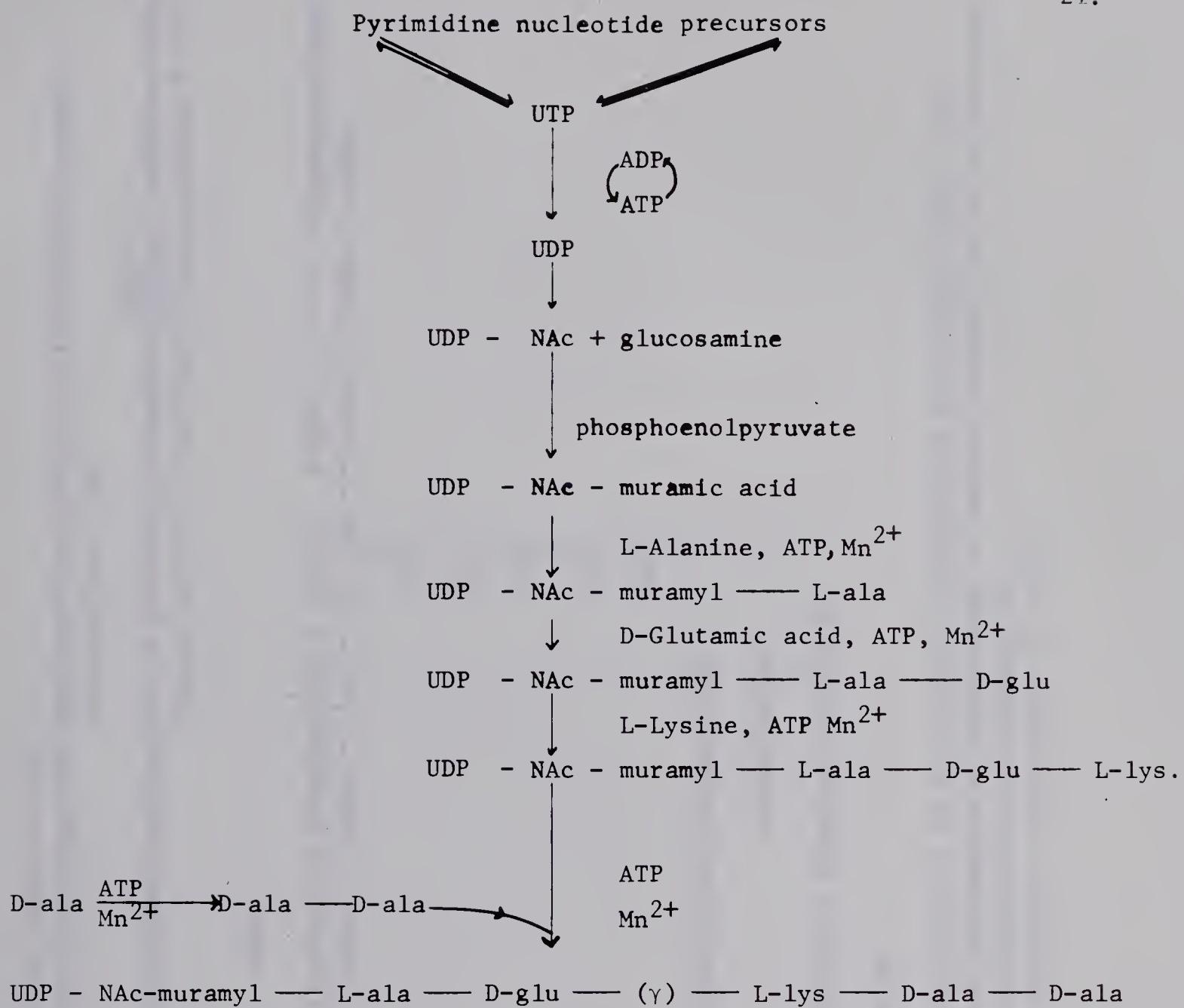


FIGURE 2. Reactions leading to the synthesis of UDP-NAc-muramyl pentapeptide.

(Park, 1966. Soc. for Gen. Microbiol. 16th Symp. 70-81.)

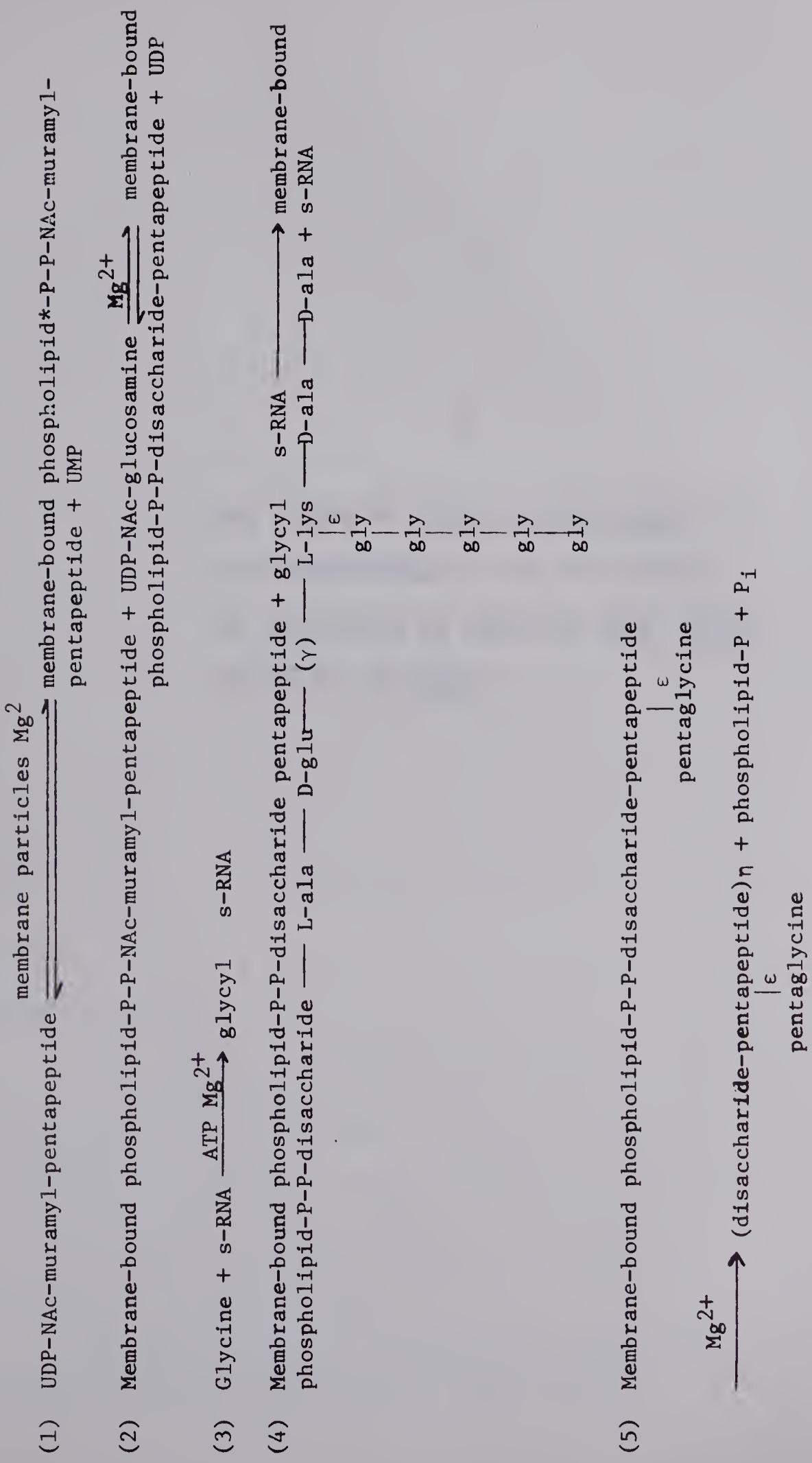


FIGURE 3. Reactions leading to the incorporation of Nac-muramyl-pentapeptide into murein which lacks cross-links. *Phospholipid-P- represents a phospholipid of unknown composition in the membrane whose phosphate accepts phospho-Nac-muramyl-pentapeptide.
(Park, 1966. Soc. for Gen. Microbiol., 16th Symp.: 70 - 81.)

II

THE GROWTH OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS PS 7
AND STAPHYLOPHAGE 7, AND THE INFLUENCE
OF ANTIBIOTICS ON THE LYSIS OF S. AUREUS
PS7 BY Ø7; IN VITRO.

THE GROWTH OF STYLOLLOCUS VIRUS 283

the growth of the virus in the plant cells. The results of the experiments are given in Table I.

MATERIALS AND GENERAL METHODOLOGY.

A brief account of the source of the materials used in this study is presented below. Also included are those aspects of general methodology common to many of the experiments performed; modifications and other special techniques are discussed wherever warranted.

Media.

The nutrient medium employed was 2.5% nutrient broth (Oxoid #2) (= NB). The broth was sterilized at 121° for 15 minutes and the pH on cooling was ca. 7.2. When nutrient medium supplemented with Ca⁺⁺ was needed, sterile stock CaCl₂ solution was added to sterile broth to give the final concentration required, usually 100 µg/ml CaCl₂ (= NBCa⁺⁺).

Nutrient agar for general use was prepared by adding 1.5% agar (Bacto Difco) to nutrient broth before sterilization. For use in the assay of phage by the agar overlay technique of Gratia (28), 0.5% agar was added to NB.

Bacterial strain.

Staphylococcus aureus PS7 in the lyophilized state, originating from the Department of National Health and Welfare, was obtained through the courtesy of the phage-typing section of the Provincial Laboratory of Public Health, University of Alberta, and transfers were made at ca. 2-month intervals.

The phage type of S. aureus PS7 was 6/7/47/53/54/75/77 and it remained unchanged throughout this investigation.

Preparation of bacterial suspensions

When log-phase suspensions of S. aureus PS7 were required, growth from a stock NA slope was spread on NA plates and incubated overnight at 37°C. Growth from each of one or more plates was harvested using ca. 2 - 5 ml NB (or NBCa⁺⁺) and adjusted to an absorbance of 1.0. This latter suspension was then used to inoculate NB (or NB Ca⁺⁺), (1 ml suspension:100 ml nutrient broth), and the organisms were then grown to the turbidity required for use in a water-bath shaker at 37°C.

Bacteriophage

Staphylococcus bacteriophage 7 was obtained in the lyophilized state from the same source as S. aureus PS7. After reconstitution it was propagated on S. aureus PS7 in NB (later NB Ca⁺⁺ was used) by the method described by Blair and Williams (10). Lysates of Ø7 after propagation and filtration through millipore 0.45 μ HA membrane filters contained ca. 10⁹ - 10¹⁰ pfu/ml. For the preparation of high titer phage, filtered lysates were centrifugalized at 18,000 rpm for 6 - 8 hours in a Serval RC-2 centrifuge. Upon removal of most of the supernatant, pooled concentrated suspensions gave titers of ca. 1 - 1.5 x 10¹¹ pfu/ml.

Viable counts

For the determination of viable counts, suspensions of bacteria were diluted in 0.07 M phosphate buffer at pH 7.0, prepared as described by Varley (94), and 0.1 ml volumes of appropriate dilutions were then

spread on the dried surfaces of NA plates. After 24 hours incubation at 37°C colonies were counted with the aid of a New Brunswick Bactronic Scientific counter. Counts were recorded from plates showing 30 - 300 colonies.

Measurement of absorbance

Absorbance of bacterial suspensions was determined with the aid of a Bausch & Lomb Spectronic 20 spectrometer using a wave-length of 600 m μ . Suspensions were contained in side-arm flasks and were tipped into the side-arms for reading.

Antibiotic sensitivity of *S. aureus* PS7.

Antibiotic sensitivity tests by the disc technique showed that *S. aureus* PS7 is susceptible to vancomycin, novobiocin, chloramphenicol, bacitracin, streptomycin, penicillin and oxacillin. Sensitivity to D-cycloserine was demonstrated using a tube technique.

Antibiotics

The antibiotics used in this investigation and their origin are listed in Appendix I. Stock antibiotic solutions were made by weighing appropriate amounts of each antibiotic and dissolving them in water. The concentrations reported are those of the solid material supplied by the manufacturers.

GROWTH OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS PS7
AND OF Ø7.

Standard growth of S. aureus PS7 in nutrient broth at 37°C.

A standard growth curve for Staphylococcus aureus PS7 was determined by using a suspension of S. aureus PS7 of absorbance 1.0, prepared from overnight growth on an NA plate. A 1% inoculum in nutrient broth was made in a final volume of 50 ml contained in a 250 ml side-arm flask. The flask (with its contents) was incubated at 37°C in a water-bath shaker. The absorbance of the suspension was determined at intervals and at the same time 0.5 ml samples were removed and assayed for viable organisms. Counts from three plates were recorded at each time interval.

The results are presented in Table I, and are represented graphically in Fig. 4.

The computed growth rate of S. aureus PS7 in the log phase under these conditions is ca. 2 generations per hour.

The influence of antibiotics on absorbance of suspensions of S. aureus PS7 at 37°C.

Log phase suspensions of S. aureus PS7 were subjected to the influence of various concentrations of each of the antibiotics, penicillin, D-cycloserine, bacitracin, vancomycin, chloramphenicol, and oxacillin. The staphylococci and antibiotic were contained in a final volume of 50 ml in 250 ml side-arm flasks. The incubation temperature was 37°C,

TABLE I

GROWTH OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS PS7
IN NUTRIENT BROTH AT 37°C.

At Hrs.	Absorbance	0.1 ml of dilution plated	Counts/plate	Stan- dard error	cfu/ml
0	.002	10 ³	50,48,60	3.71	5.27 x 10 ⁵
½	.019	10 ³	57,66,50	4.63	5.77 x 10 ⁵
1	.023	10 ³	86,75,70	4.73	7.70 x 10 ⁵
2	.028	10 ³	146,150,160	5.77	1.50 x 10 ⁶
3	.035	10 ⁴	69,65,62	2.28	6.53 x 10 ⁶
4	.096	10 ⁵	37,30,37	5.32	3.40 x 10 ⁷
5	.390	10 ⁵	188,196,200	3.53	1.94 x 10 ⁸
6	.76	10 ⁶	34,32,30	1.15	3.20 x 10 ⁸
7	1.00	10 ⁶	77,68,71	2.65	7.20 x 10 ⁸
8	1.20	10 ⁶	77,79,83	1.76	7.97 x 10 ⁸
9	1.35	10 ⁶	78,82,74	2.31	7.80 x 10 ⁸
10	1.40	10 ⁶	72,75,86	4.26	7.70 x 10 ⁸

S. aureus PS7 suspension of absorbance 1.0 was used to inoculate NB (1 in 100), and incubated at 37°C. Absorbance and viable counts were determined at intervals.

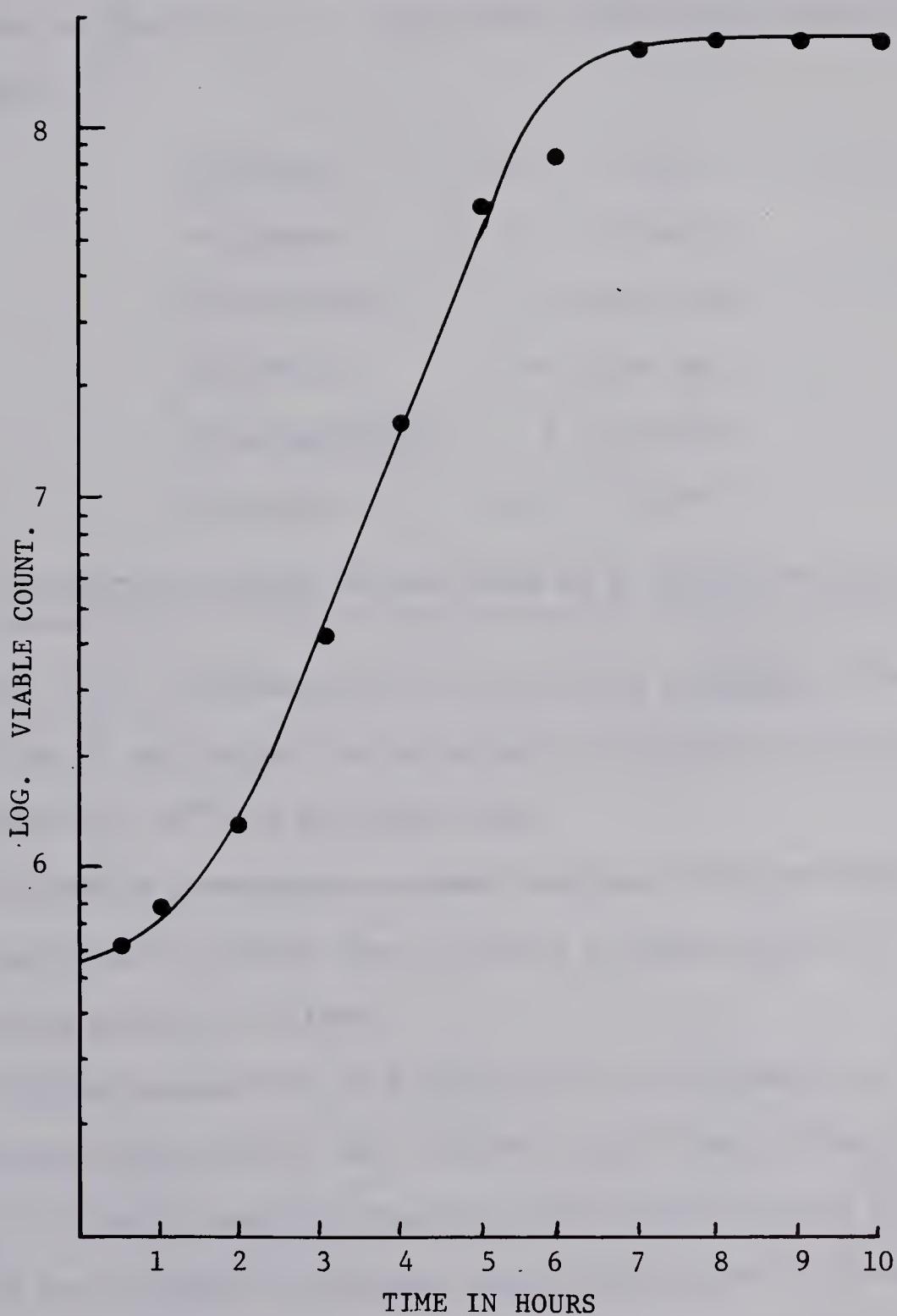


FIGURE 4. Growth of S. aureus PS7 in nutrient broth at 37°C.

and the turbidities were read at half-hour intervals.

Results typical of the antibiotics used against S. aureus PS7 are presented in Fig. 5 (a - f). The minimal inhibitory concentrations observed were:

Penicillin	0.1 - 1 µg/ml
Vancomycin	1 - 10 µg/ml
D-cycloserine	10 - 100 µg/ml
Bacitracin	10 - 100 µg/ml
Chloramphenicol	1 - 10 µg/ml
Oxacillin	0.2 - 2 µg/ml

Influence of CaCl_2 (120 µg/ml) on the lysis of S. aureus PS7 by Ø7

After much unrewarded effort using Ø7 and S. aureus PS7 in nutrient broth it was decided to investigate the extent to which this system depended on Ca^{++} for efficient lysis.

Preliminary investigation showed that when CaCl_2 was added to NB to a concentration greater than 350 µg/ml a precipitation of insoluble calcium salts resulted.

Log-phase suspensions of S. aureus PS7 of absorbance ca. 0.4 with and without added CaCl_2 , were infected with Ø7 and allowed to incubate at 37°C with shaking. The phage:cell ratios studied were ca. 15:1, 15:10 and 15:100. The mixtures were contained in 40 ml volumes in 250 ml side-arm flasks. The absorbances of the suspensions were determined at intervals.

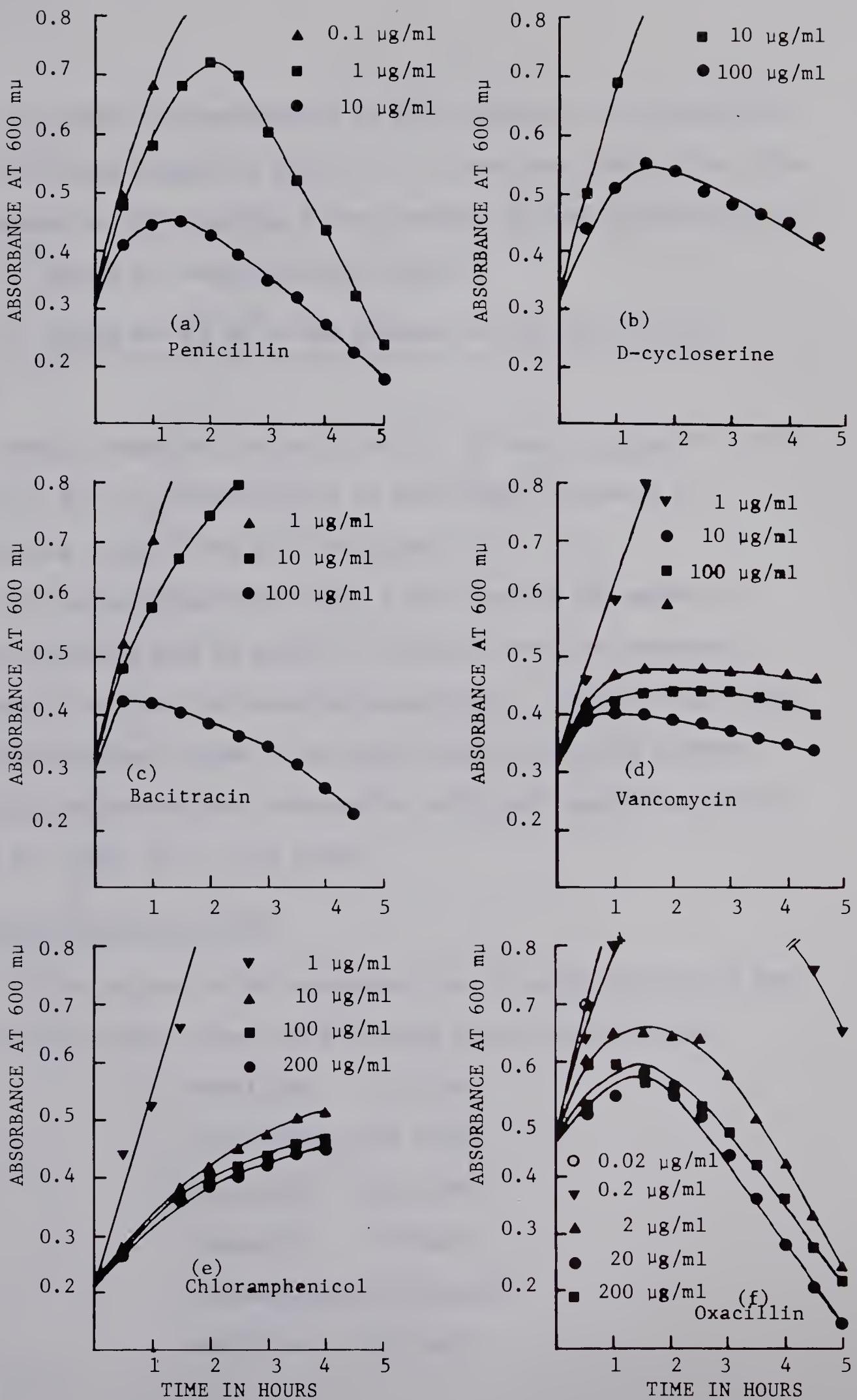


FIGURE 5. The influence of antibiotics on absorbance of suspensions of *S. aureus* PS7 at 37°C.

The results are represented in Fig. 6 where it can be seen that even with the high phage:cell ratio of 15:1 there was little or no lysis in the absence of Ca^{++} , whereas in the presence of this cation efficient lysis of S. aureus PS7 suspension was evident.

Lysis of S. aureus PS7 by $\emptyset 7$ in the presence of different amounts of CaCl_2

Using a phage:cell ratio of ca. 6:1, $\emptyset 7$ and S. aureus PS7 were incubated at 37°C in nutrient broth to which CaCl_2 was added in concentrations ranging from 20 - 120 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$.

The results presented in Fig. 7 show that as the amount of CaCl_2 was increased from 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ to 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, there was increased efficiency in the lysis of bacterial suspensions. Beyond 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ the rate of lysis did not appear to be significantly augmented further. This latter observation was confirmed by additional experiments using CaCl_2 in the range of 50 - 120 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$.

Influence of antibiotics on $\emptyset 7$

To 9 ml volumes of $\emptyset 7$ suspension 1 ml of stock solution of each antibiotic was added to give the following final concentrations:

Penicillin, 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

D-cycloserine, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

Bacitracin, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

Vancomycin 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

Chloramphenicol, 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

Oxacillin, 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

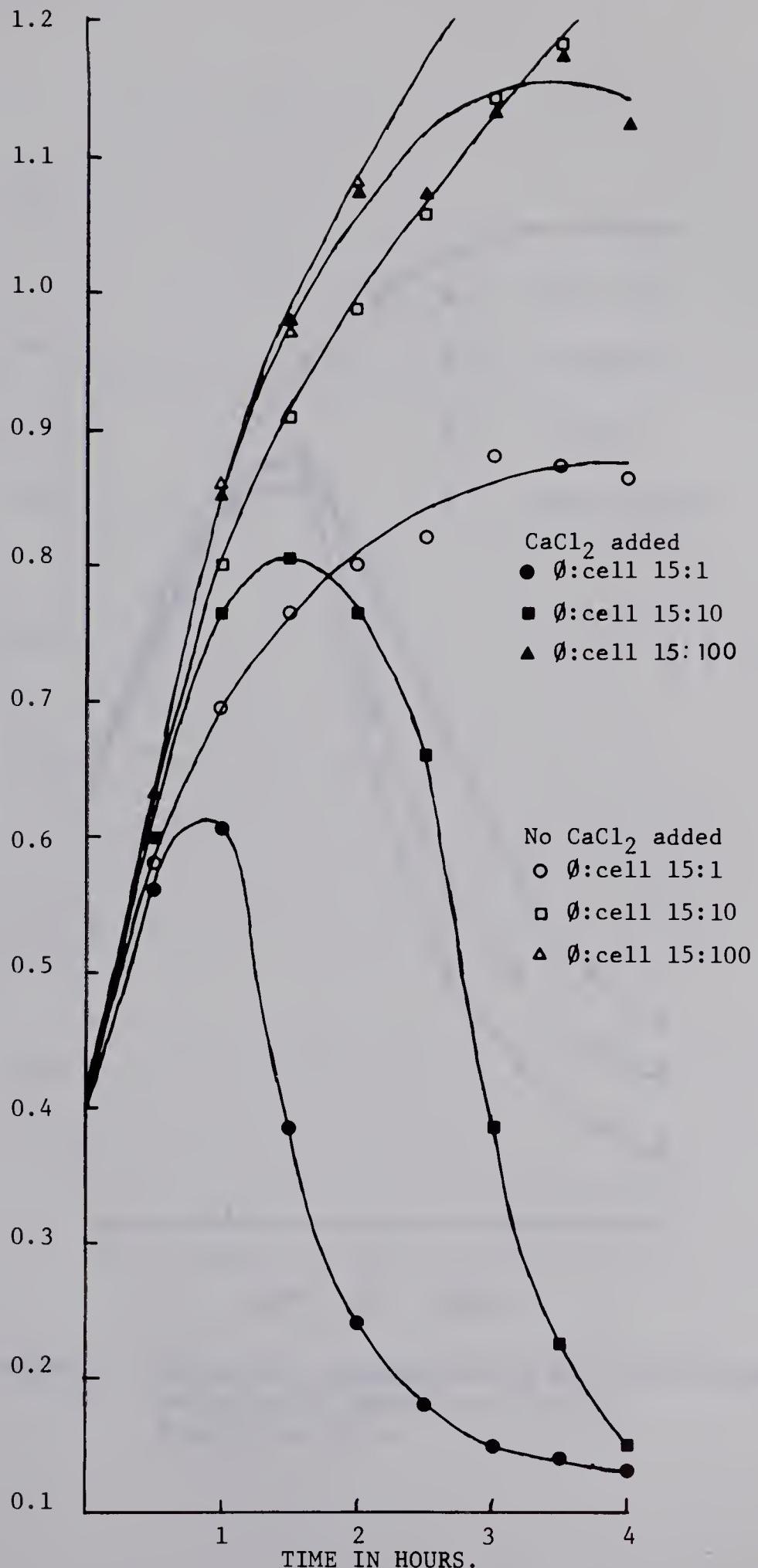


FIGURE 6. Influence of CaCl_2 (120 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) on the lysis of S. aureus PS7 by Ø7.

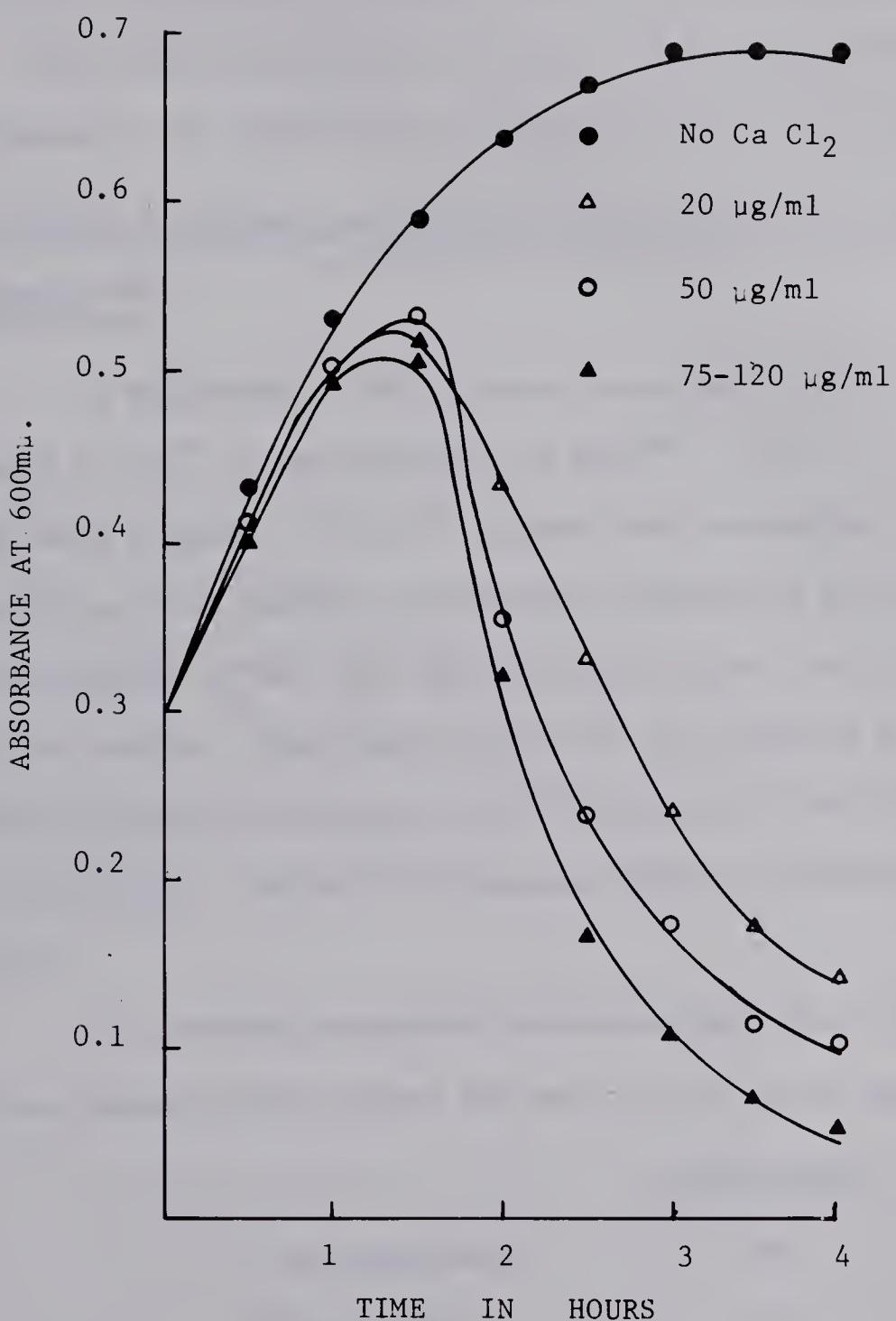


FIGURE 7. Lysis of S. aureus PS7 by ϕ 7 in the presence of different amounts of Ca Cl₂.
 ϕ :cell, ca. 6:1.

The number of plaque-forming units was determined immediately after addition of antibiotic and again after 48 hours storage in a cold room at 4°C. The results presented in Table II show that there was no significant influence of the antibiotics on the assay value of ϕ 7 suspension.

The effect of residual antibiotic on the assay of ϕ 7 against
S. aureus PS7

A suspension of ϕ 7 of assay value ca. 2.5×10^9 pfu/ml was diluted to 10^{-6} in tenfold steps in NBCa⁺⁺. Five other sets of dilutions of ϕ 7 were prepared, the 10^{-3} diluent tube containing the antibiotics penicillin, D-cycloserine, bacitracin, vancomycin and chloramphenicol in concentrations of 10, 100, 100, 10 and 20 μ g/ml, one antibiotic to each dilution series. The final tube (10^{-6}) was used for preparing the agar overlay plates and contained a 10^{-3} dilution of the initial concentration of antibiotics. The set of dilutions without antibiotic served as a control.

The results presented below show that the residual antibiotic did not significantly affect the assay of ϕ 7 vs. S. aureus PS7.

	<u>$\times 10^9$ pfu/ml</u>
No antibiotic	1.26
Penicillin	1.32
D-cycloserine	1.27
Bacitracin	1.24
Vancomycin	1.27
Chloramphenicol	1.30

TABLE II
INFLUENCE OF ANTIBIOTICS ON Ø7

	<u>Zero time</u> (x 10 ⁹ pfu/ml)	<u>48 hrs. at 4°C</u> (x 10 ⁹ pfu/ml)
Control (no antibiotic)	7.95	8.17
Penicillin, 10 µg/ml	8.15	8.07
D-cycloserine, 100 µg/ml	8.10	8.02
Bacitracin, 100 µg/ml	8.13	8.18
Vancomycin, 10 µg/ml	8.12	8.03
Chloramphenicol, 20 µg/ml	7.94	8.11
Oxacillin, 20 µg/ml	8.20	8.23

To 9 ml of Ø7 suspension 1 ml of antibiotic solution was added to give the antibiotic concentrations indicated. The suspensions were assayed for plaque forming units immediately after addition of antibiotic and again 48 hours after storage at 4°C.

Adsorption of Ø7 to S. aureus PS7 at 37°C and the effect of antibiotics
on the adsorption process

The experiment reported below served to determine the adsorption characteristics of Ø7 to S. aureus PS7, as well as to reveal the extent to which antibiotics influenced such adsorption.

Phage 7 was added to log-phase S. aureus PS7 suspensions at 37°C to give a final concentration of 6.80×10^6 pfu/ml. The viable count on the staphylococcal suspension was 2.70×10^8 cfu/ml giving a Ø:cell ratio of 1:40. Where investigated, the appropriate antibiotic was added 1 minute before the bacteriophage to give final concentrations as follows:

Penicillin	10 µg/ml
D-cycloserine	100 µg/ml
Bacitracin	100 µg/ml
Vancomycin	10 µg/ml
Chloramphenicol	20 µg/ml

At 2½, 5, and 10 minute intervals after addition of Ø7, 0.5 ml of each adsorption mixture was removed and diluted 10^{-2} in cold (ice water bath) NBCa⁺⁺. After further 10-fold dilution, 5 ml portions were removed and centrifugalized at 3000 rpm for 15 minutes. The supernatant from each tube was carefully removed and assayed for residual Ø7.

Results are presented in Table III and the adsorption curve for Ø7 vs. S. aureus PS7 in the absence of antibiotic is represented in Fig. 8. It can be seen that 85% of Ø7 adsorbs in 2½ minutes, ca. 95%

TABLE III

ADSORPTION OF $\phi 7$ TO S. AUREUS PS7 AT 37°C AND THE
EFFECT OF ANTIBIOTICS ON THE ADSORPTION PROCESS

	Time min.	P	% residual $\phi 7$	% adsorbed $\phi 7$	K, ($\times 10^{-9}$ ml/min)
No antibiotic	2.5	1.02×10^6	14.9	85.1	2.819
	5	3.63×10^5	5.3	94.7	2.171
	10	1.08×10^5	1.6	98.4	1.533
Penicillin 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$	2.5	1.02×10^6	14.9	85.1	2.819
	5	4.03×10^5	5.9	94.1	2.094
	10	1.02×10^5	1.5	98.5	1.554
D-cycloserine 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$	2.5	9.40×10^5	13.7	86.3	2.936
	5	4.10×10^5	6.0	92.0	2.081
	10	1.03×10^5	1.5	98.5	1.542
Bacitracin 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$	2.5	1.06×10^6	15.5	84.5	2.758
	5	4.10×10^5	6.0	92.0	2.081
	10	9.90×10^4	1.4	98.6	1.565
Vancomycin 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$	2.5	6.91×10^5	10.1	89.9	3.019
	5	3.23×10^5	4.7	94.3	2.264
	10	7.22×10^4	1.1	98.9	1.700
Chloram- penicol 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$	2.5	6.71×10^5	9.8	90.2	3.437
	5	3.10×10^5	4.7	95.3	2.264
	10	6.09×10^4	0.9	99.1	1.744

$$K = \frac{2.3}{B} \times \frac{1}{t} \times \log \frac{P_0}{P}$$

P_0 = initial concentration of $\phi 7$

P = concentration of $\phi 7$ at time t

t = time in minutes

B = concentration of bacterial cells (cfu/ml)

in 5 minutes and close to 100% in 10 minutes. The presence of any of the tested antibiotic 1 minute before ϕ 7 and during the adsorption period did not have any noticeable effect on the rate or extent of adsorption to S. aureus PS7. It is also evident from the slope of the curve in Fig. 8 and from adsorption constants (K) computed on the basis of residual ϕ 7 at 2½, 5, and 10 minutes, that the final fractions of ϕ 7, ca. 15%, adsorb more slowly than the first 85% representing the bulk of the added ϕ 7.

One-step growth of ϕ 7 using S. aureus PS7 as host

The method used for investigating one-step growth was that of Ellis and Delbrück (19). From an adsorption mixture of ϕ 7 and log phase S. aureus PS7 at 37°C 0.5 ml samples were removed after 5 minutes and diluted 10^{-2} in NBCa⁺⁺ at 37°C. Incubation at 37°C was continued in the water-bath shaker. At intervals 0.5 ml of the dilute incubating mixture was removed and further diluted for assay of total infectious centers. For these latter dilutions NBCa⁺⁺ at the temperature of an ice water bath was used.

The results of a sample experiment are presented in Fig. 9. The S. aureus PS7 suspension contained 2.70×10^8 cfu/ml and the ϕ :cell ratio was 1:40. Under these conditions a latent period of ca. 30 minutes was obtained. The rise period was ca. 22 minutes and the burst size ca. 95.

The effect of antibiotics on the yield of ϕ 7 using S. aureus PS7 as host at 37°C.

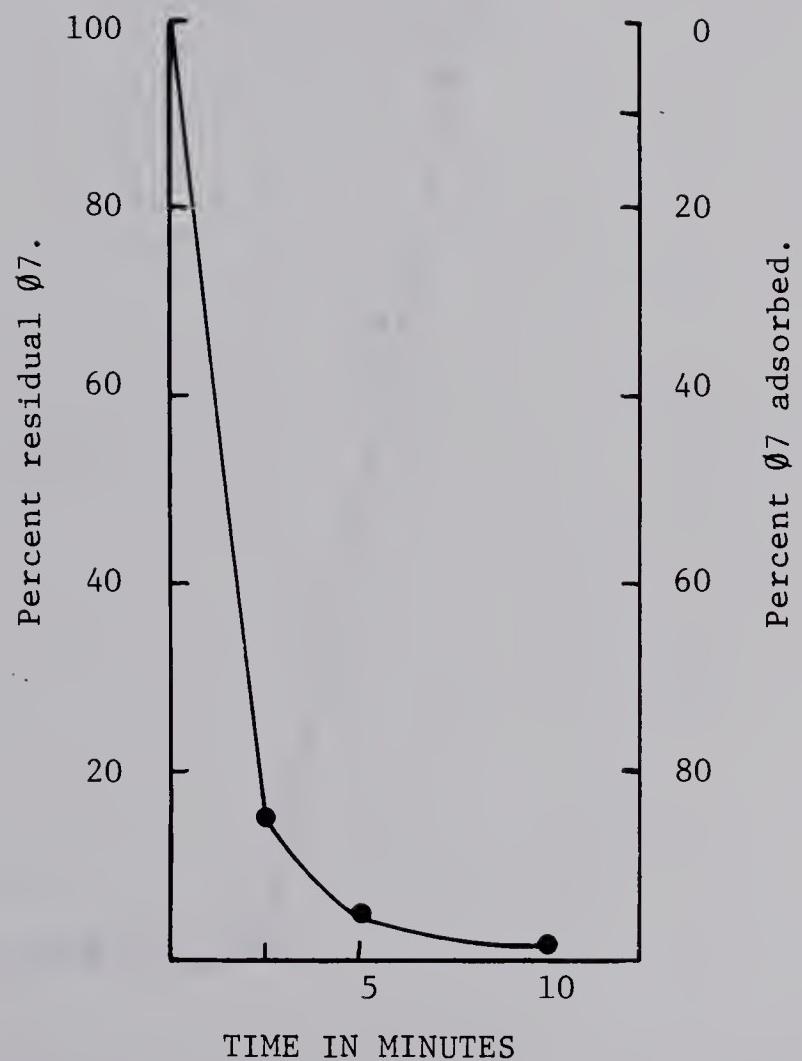


FIGURE 8. Adsorption of $\phi 7$ to S. aureus PS7 at 37°C .

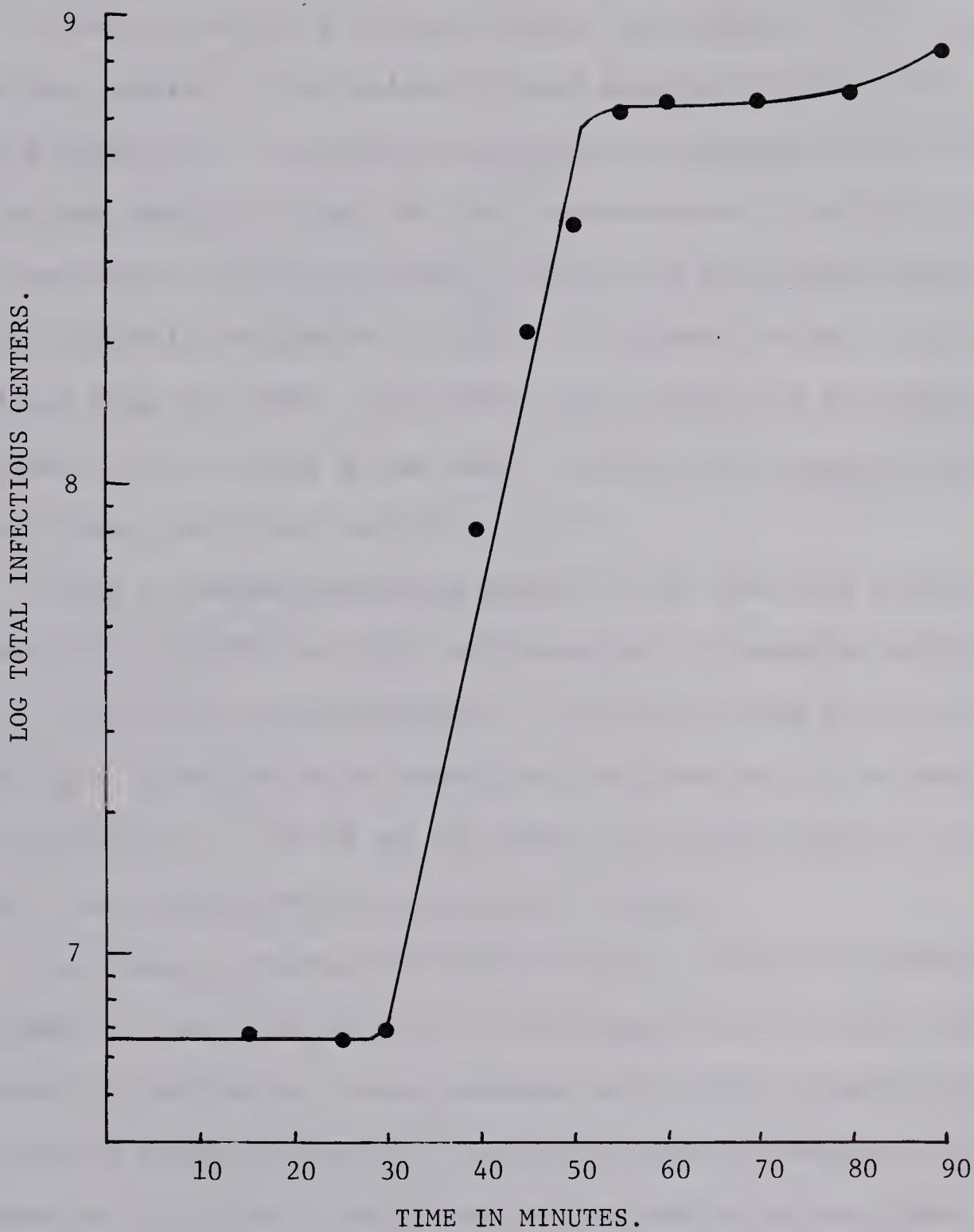


FIGURE 9. One-step growth of $\phi 7$ using S. aureus PS7 as host.

S. aureus PS7 suspension in the log phase was distributed in 48 ml volumes to each of 6 side-arm flasks, and warmed to 37°C in a water-bath shaker. A 1 ml volume of stock solution of each of the antibiotics penicillin, D-cycloserine, bacitracin, vancomycin, and chloramphenicol was added, such that the final concentration of antibiotic in 50 ml would be 10 µg, 100 µg, 100 µg, 10 µg, and 20 µg per ml respectively. To one flask which served as a control, a comparable volume, 1 ml of distilled water was added. One minute after addition of the antibiotic (or water), 1 ml of stock Ø7 was used to infect the S. aureus suspension in each flask; the Ø:cell ratio was ca. 1:12.

After a 5-minute adsorption period, 0.5 ml from each flask was diluted 10⁻² in NB Ca⁺⁺ at 37°C containing the corresponding antibiotic at the concentration indicated above. The control flask did not contain antibiotic. Incubation with shaking was continued at 37°C and samples were withdrawn at 7, 20, 60 and 120 minute intervals, diluted in cold NB Ca⁺⁺, and assayed for total infectious centers.

The results presented in Table IV show a 140-fold increase in the number of infectious centers at 120 minutes for the control which contained no antibiotic. In the presence of 10 µg/ml of penicillin, 100 µg/ml of D-cycloserine and 10 µg/ml of vancomycin there was also an increase in the number of infectious centers indicating that these antibiotics had allowed both Ø7 replication and release of active Ø7. The increased titre in these three systems was not, however, as high as in the absence of antibiotic. In the presence of 10 µg/ml of

TABLE IV
 THE EFFECT OF ANTIBIOTICS ON THE YIELD OF
 ϕ 7 USING S. AUREUS PS7 AS HOST AT 37°C

	Minutes after ϕ 7 addition			
	7 pfu/ml	30 pfu/ml	60 pfu/ml	120 pfu/ml
Control (no antibiotic)	2.54×10^7	3.20×10^7	2.28×10^8	3.55×10^9
Penicillin, 10 μ g/ml	2.54×10^7	2.06×10^7	4.46×10^7	4.68×10^7
D-cycloserine, 100 μ g/ml	2.13×10^7	2.27×10^7	7.06×10^7	7.5×10^7
Bacitracin, 100 μ g/ml	1.22×10^7	3.50×10^6	1.22×10^7	1.23×10^7
Vancomycin, 10 μ g/ml	1.86×10^7	1.30×10^7	8.83×10^7	1.16×10^8
Chloramphenicol, 20 μ g/ml	2.83×10^7	2.42×10^7	1.79×10^7	1.73×10^7

ϕ 7 added 1 minute after antibiotic in the the concentrations indicated was used to infect log-phase S. aureus PS7 suspensions, at 37°C. in the ratio of 1:12. Input ϕ 7 was 2.52×10^7 pfu/ml. Total infectious centers were determined at intervals following ϕ 7 addition.

chloramphenicol and 100 μ g/ml of bacitracin, the number of infectious centers ultimately recovered was less than or equal to the input of ϕ 7 respectively.

INTERACTION OF S. AUREUS PS7, Ø7 AND EACH OF THE
ANTIBIOTICS PENICILLIN, D-CYCLOSERINE,
BACITRACIN, VANCOMYCIN AND CHLORAMPHENICOL.

In these experiments S. aureus PS7 was grown at 37°C to the required absorbance of ca. 0.30 and was in the log phase. Unless otherwise stated, the nutrient medium was NBCa⁺⁺.

Prepared S. aureus PS7 suspensions were distributed in 48 ml volumes into 250 side-arm flasks. A 1 ml volume of Ø7 and 1 ml of antibiotic solution either alone or in combination were then added to each measured volume of cell suspension. When Ø7 or antibiotic were used alone, the volumes were made up to 50 ml with distilled water and nutrient broth respectively. The flasks were incubated at 37°C in a water bath shaker.

Absorbance values were recorded at intervals and are presented in Tables V - XVI. The maximum absorbance values (A_{max}), where appropriate, are recorded in separate columns. The time in hours required for suspensions to return to the absorbance values at the start of the experiments (t_i) and the half-lysis time ($t_{\frac{1}{2}}$) were obtained from graphs plotted on linear graph paper, and are also recorded in separate columns. The values in parentheses in the t_i and $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ columns were estimated by extrapolation of the appropriate curves in the region of steepest negative slope. The Ø:cell ratios reported were based on assay of input Ø7 and the viable count of prepared cell suspensions at zero time.

The effect of different concentrations of penicillin.

S. aureus PS7 was subjected to the action of $\phi 7$, and penicillin at different concentrations; e.g. 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, 0.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ and 0.01 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$; the ϕ :cell ratio was ca. 1:1.

The results presented in Table V and Fig. 10 show that as the concentration of antibiotic is decreased, the maximum turbidity obtained by the suspensions before the onset of rapid lysis was increased. The lytic patterns for S. aureus PS7 vs. $\phi 7$ in the presence of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, 0.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ and 0.01 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of penicillin were similar to that for $\phi 7$ alone. The respective half-lysis times, 1.9, 1.8, 1.7 and 2.5 hours were less than that for $\phi 7$ alone, viz., 2.9 hours. As the concentration of penicillin was decreased, the curves intersected in the region of rapid lysis in a manner indicating an increasing rate of rapid lysis as the penicillin concentration was reduced from 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ to 0.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$. This is also reflected in the decreasing half-lysis times, the values becoming 1.9, 1.8 and 1.7 hours respectively.

Comparison of the effect of (a) the simultaneous addition of $\phi 7$ and penicillin, (b) $\phi 7$ added $\frac{1}{2}$ hour after penicillin and (c) penicillin added $\frac{1}{2}$ hour after $\phi 7$.

In this experiment two concentrations of penicillin, 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ and 2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, were investigated; the ϕ :cell ratio was ca. 2:1.

Table VI and Fig. 11 show that when $\phi 7$ was added at the same time as penicillin or half an hour before penicillin, the curve for lysis resembled that for $\phi 7$ alone. Delay in the addition of penicillin

TABLE V

THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT CONCENTRATIONS OF PENICILLIN

	<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ										HOURS		
		0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	Amax	t _i	t _{1/2}
$\emptyset 7$ + pen. 10 μ g/ml	0.31	0.35	0.37	0.28	0.14	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.38	1.3	1.9
$\emptyset 7$ + pen. 1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.39	0.41	0.28	0.11	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.41	1.4	1.8
$\emptyset 7$ + pen. 0.1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.43	0.48	0.28	0.08	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.48	1.5	1.7
$\emptyset 7$ + pen. 0.01 μ g/ml	0.31	0.46	0.55	0.46	0.28	0.16	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.55	1.9	2.5
Pen., 10 μ g/ml	0.31	0.36	0.39	0.37	0.33	0.28	0.24	0.19	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.39	2.8	4.3
Pen., 1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.41	0.43	0.44	0.42	0.38	0.33	0.28	0.22	0.17	0.17	0.44	3.1	4.6
Pen., 0.1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.44	0.55	0.64	0.66	0.62	0.52	0.43	0.32	0.22	0.22	0.66	4.0	4.8
Pen., 0.01 μ g/ml	0.31	0.48	0.64	0.77	0.82	0.87	0.87	0.81	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.87	-	-
$\emptyset 7$ only	0.31	0.46	0.60	0.60	0.55	0.29	0.14	0.10	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.60	2.5	2.9
<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 only	0.31	0.49	0.69	0.85	1.00	1.13	1.30	1.35	-	-	-	-	-	-

 \emptyset : cell ca. 1:1

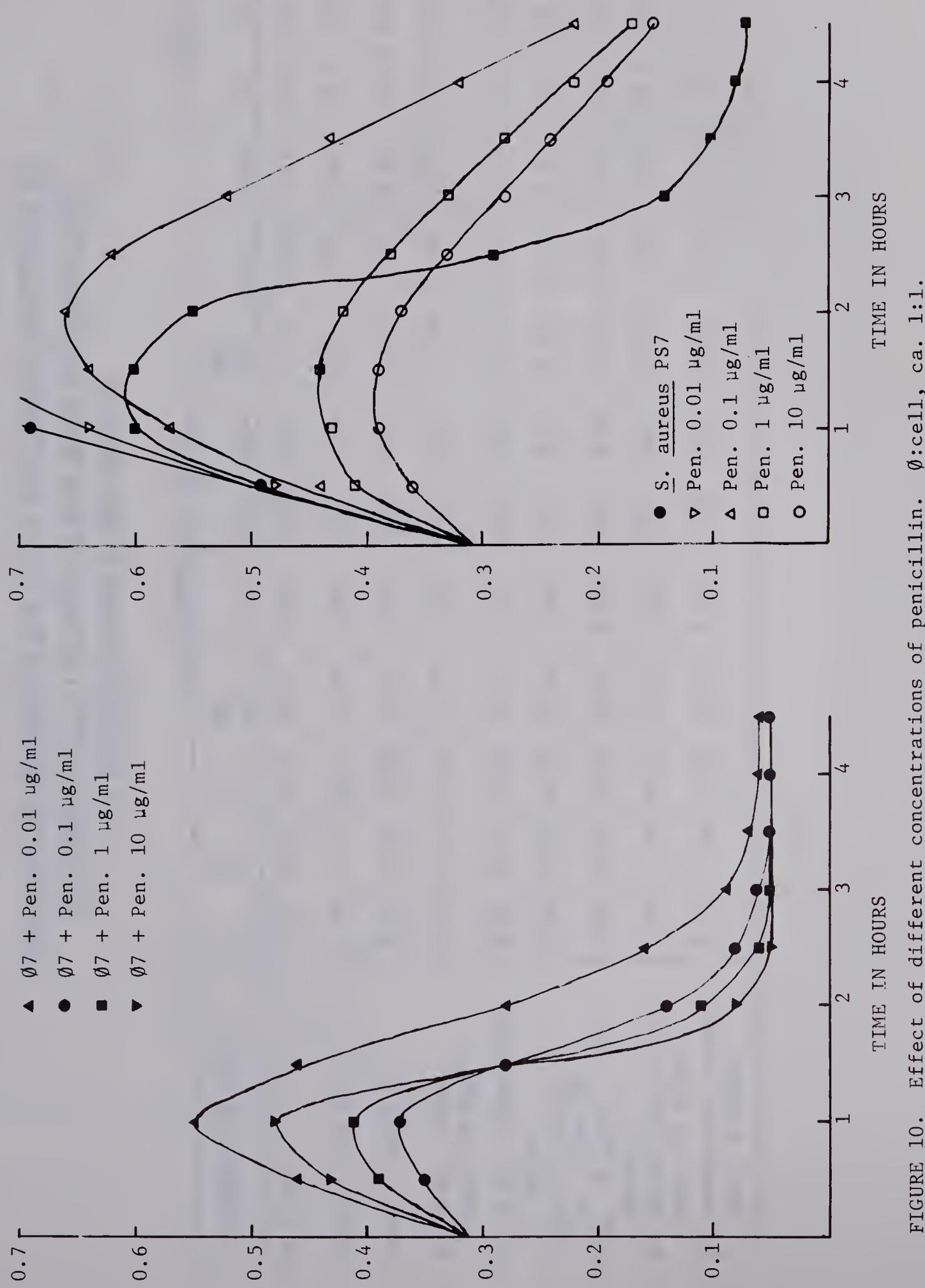


TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF THE EFFECTS DUE TO (a) SIMULTANEOUS ADDITION OF $\phi 7$
AND PENICILLIN, (b) $\phi 7$ ADDED $\frac{1}{2}$ HOUR AFTER PENICILLIN, AND
(c) PENICILLIN ADDED $\frac{1}{2}$ HOUR AFTER $\phi 7$

<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ								HOURS			
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	Amax	t_1	$t_{\frac{1}{2}}$
$\phi 7$ alone	0.30	0.50	0.64	0.72	0.69	0.59	0.43	0.22	0.11	0.72	3.3	3.8
Pen., 10 μ g/ml	0.30	0.43	0.47	0.49	0.49	0.47	0.42	0.36	0.29	0.49	3.9	(5.1)
Pen., 2 μ g/ml	0.30	0.46	0.50	0.53	0.52	0.50	0.46	0.38	0.33	0.53	(4.2)	(4.9)
$\phi 7$, $\frac{1}{2}$ hr. after Pen., 10 μ g/ml	0.30	0.43	0.45	0.49	0.48	0.46	0.43	0.38	0.32	0.49	(4.1)	(5.5)
$\phi 7$, $\frac{1}{2}$ hr. after Pen., 2 μ g/ml	0.30	0.47	0.49	0.53	0.51	0.48	0.43	0.37	0.28	0.53	3.9	(4.8)
Pen., 10 μ g/ml, $\frac{1}{2}$ hr. after $\phi 7$ after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.51	0.57	0.54	0.42	0.23	0.11	0.06	0.02	0.57	2.3	2.8
$\phi 7$ immediately after Pen. 10 μ g/ml	0.30	0.47	0.56	0.53	0.40	0.24	0.04	0.05	0.02	0.56	2.3	2.8
$\phi 7$ immediately after Pen. 2 μ g/ml	0.30	0.40	0.41	0.41	0.21	0.07	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.41	1.8	2.3

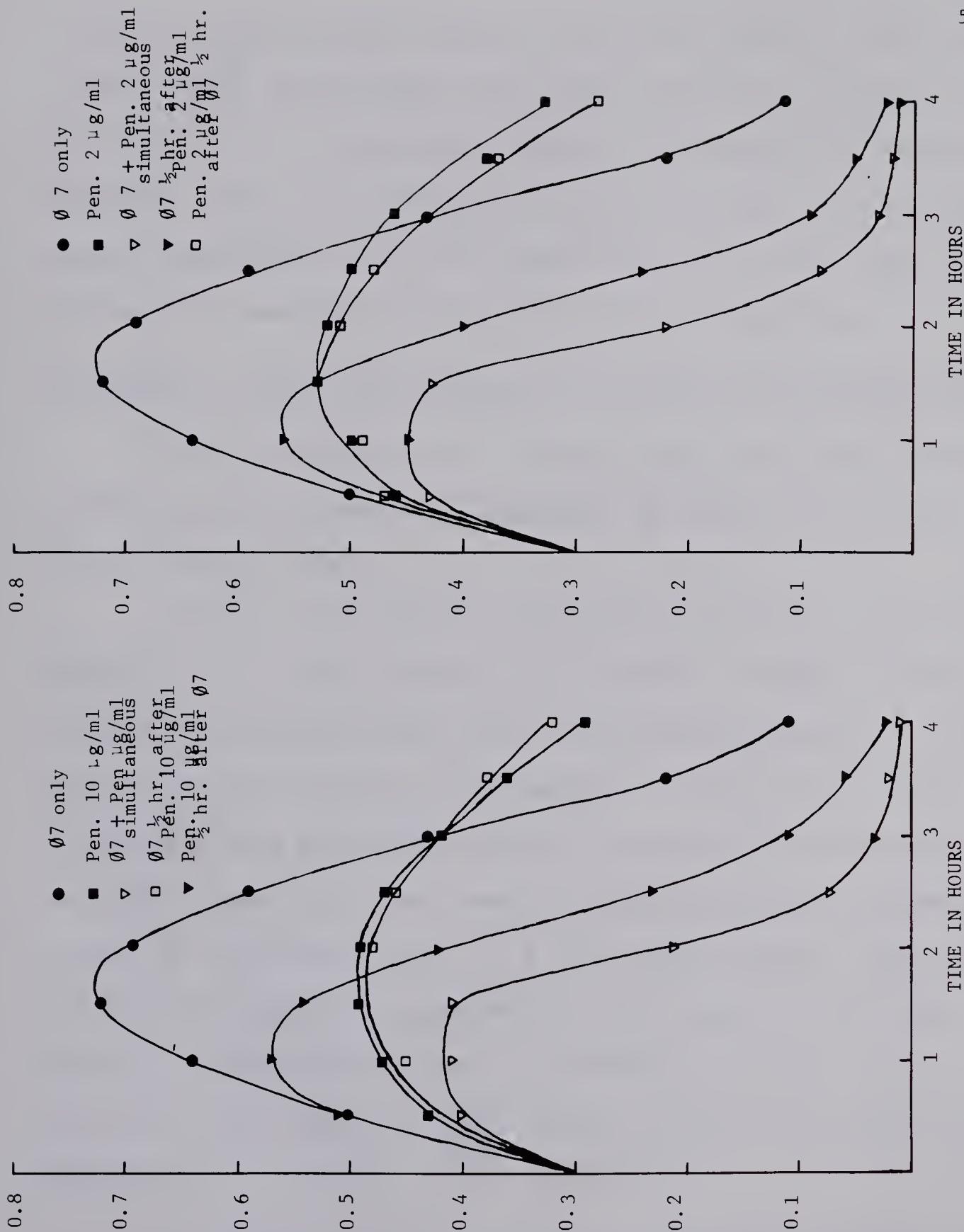


FIGURE 11. Comparison of the effect due to (a) simultaneous addition of Ø7 and penicillin; (b) Ø7 added $\frac{1}{2}$ hour after penicillin; and (c) penicillin added $\frac{1}{2}$ hour after Ø7.
 \emptyset :cell 1, ca. 2:1.

resulted in an increase in the maximum absorbance as well as an increase in the half-lysis times. The latter were still, however, less than those of Ø7 alone or of penicillin alone acting against S. aureus PS7. The results for 10 µg/ml penicillin and 2 µg/ml penicillin were almost identical. When Ø7 was added half an hour after penicillin the results showed considerable delay in the onset and rate of rapid lysis, the curves here resembling those for the antibiotic used alone.

The effect of adding Ø7 at different intervals after penicillin (10 µg/ml)

It was decided to take a closer look at the effect of varying periods of pre-treatment of S. aureus PS7 by penicillin (10 µg/ml). The Ø:cell ratio was 1.5:1.

Results are presented in Table VII and Fig. 12. When Ø7 was added 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 minutes after penicillin a slight tendency for delayed lysis was discernible; the half-lysis times being 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, and 2.3 hours respectively, as compared to 2.0 hours for Ø7 added immediately after penicillin. When Ø7 was added 10 minutes after penicillin, the delay in the onset and rate of rapid lysis became more evident as a half-lysis time of 3.1 hours would indicate. This delay in the onset and rate of lysis became even more apparent as the time interval between penicillin and later addition of Ø7 was increased. The half-lysis times for 20, 30 and 60 minutes being 4.2, 4.4, and 4.6 hours respectively.

The effect of penicillin (10 µg/ml) added at different intervals after Ø7

TABLE VII

THE EFFECT OF Ø7 ADDED AT DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER PENICILLIN (10 µg/ml)

S. aureus PS7 plus:	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m _U						HOURS				
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	Amax	t _i	$t\frac{1}{2}$
Ø7 added immediately after pen.	0.31	0.37	0.38	0.31	0.16	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.38	1.5 2.0
Ø7 2 min. after pen.	0.31	0.38	0.38	0.33	0.19	0.10	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.38	1.6 2.2
Ø7 3 min. after pen.	0.31	0.38	0.38	0.33	0.21	0.13	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.38	1.5 2.3
Ø7 4 min. after pen.	0.31	0.37	0.37	0.34	0.23	0.14	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.37	1.4 2.4
Ø7 5 min. after pen.	0.31	0.39	0.38	0.35	0.24	0.14	0.10	0.07	0.06	0.39	1.7 2.4
Ø7 6 min. after pen.	0.31	0.39	0.38	0.35	0.22	0.13	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.39	1.7 2.3
Ø7 10 min. after pen.	0.31	0.38	0.38	0.37	0.30	0.22	0.16	0.11	0.08	0.38	1.9 3.1
Ø7 20 min. after pen.	0.31	0.39	0.39	0.37	0.33	0.27	0.21	0.17	0.14	0.39	2.7 4.2
Ø7 30 min. after pen.	0.31	0.39	0.39	0.38	0.34	0.28	0.22	0.18	0.15	0.39	2.8 4.4
Ø7 60 min. after pen.	0.31	0.39	0.39	0.38	0.35	0.30	0.24	0.19	0.16	0.39	2.9 4.6

Ø:cell ca. 1.5:1
Pen. 10 µg/ml

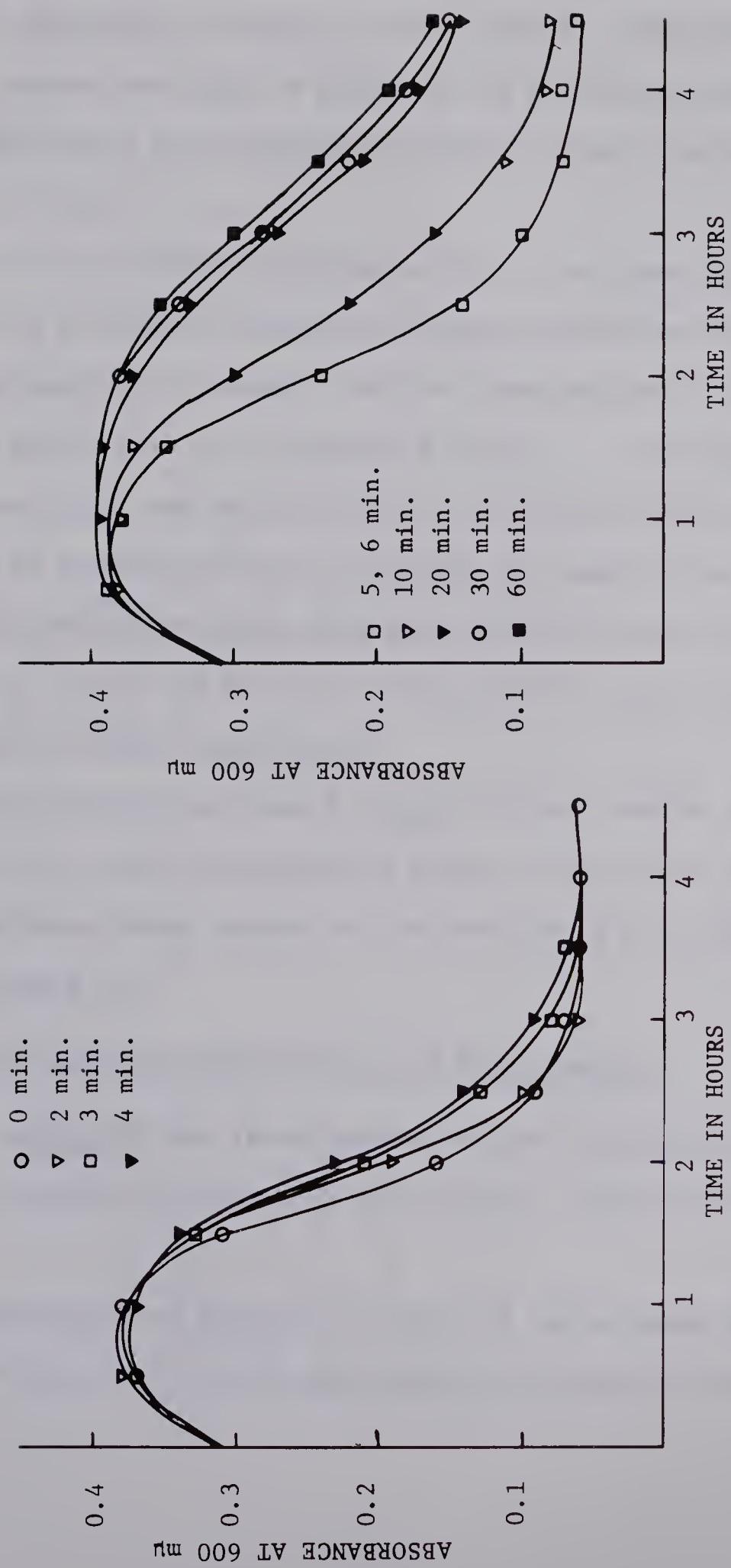


FIGURE 12. Effect of adding ϕ_7 at different intervals after penicillin, (10 μ g/ml). ϕ :cell, ca. 1.5:1

It was also decided to examine the responses resulting from the addition of penicillin at varying periods after Ø7. The penicillin concentration studied was again 10 µg/ml and the Ø:cell ratio was ca. 1.5:1.

The results are presented in Table VIII, and selected data are represented in Fig. 13.

As the time between addition of Ø7 and the later addition of penicillin was increased, there was a tendency towards an increase in the maximum absorbance attained. Parallel observations of the half-lysis times showed them to be slightly decreased. It can also be seen that when penicillin was added after Ø7 at different periods up to 30 minutes, in no instances was the half-lysis time greater than the value 1.8 hours for penicillin added immediately after Ø7, the $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ values for 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 20 and 30 minutes being 1.7, 1.7, 1.6, 1.6, 1.6, 1.4, 1.7, 1.6, and 1.8 hours respectively.

It is evident that once S. aureus PS7 was infected with Ø7, the later addition of penicillin caused no delay in the rate of rapid lysis, the lytic patterns being similar to that expected of Ø7 acting alone against S. aureus PS7.

The effect of different concentrations of D-cycloserine

S. aureus PS7 was tested against Ø7 and D-cycloserine in concentrations varying from 100 µg/ml to 0.1 µg/ml. The Ø:cell ratio was ca. 1.5:1.

The results are presented in Table IX and selected data are represented in Fig. 14. It can be seen that when 100 µg/ml of D-cycloserine

TABLE VIII

THE EFFECT OF PENICILLIN (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) ADDED AT DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER $\phi 7$

<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus: after $\phi 7$	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ						HOURS			
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	Amax	t_i	$t_{\frac{1}{2}}$
Pen. added immediately after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.38	0.37	0.22	0.08	0.02	0.01	0.38	1.1	1.8
Pen. added 2 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.38	0.38	0.22	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.38	1.1	1.7
Pen. 3 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.38	0.39	0.22	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.39	1.2	1.7
Pen. 4 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.39	0.40	0.21	0.05	0.01	0.01	0.40	1.2	1.6
Pen. 5 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.40	0.42	0.21	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.42	1.2	1.6
Pen. 6 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.39	0.38	0.10	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.39	1.1	1.4
Pen. 10 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.40	0.44	0.26	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.44	1.4	1.7
Pen. 20 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.42	0.46	0.28	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.46	1.5	1.6
Pen. 30 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.45	0.50	0.36	0.07	0.03	0.01	0.50	1.6	1.8
Pen. 60 min. after $\phi 7$	0.30	0.48	0.53	0.44	0.28	0.10	0.05	0.53	1.9	2.4

ϕ : cell ca. 1.5:1
Pen. 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

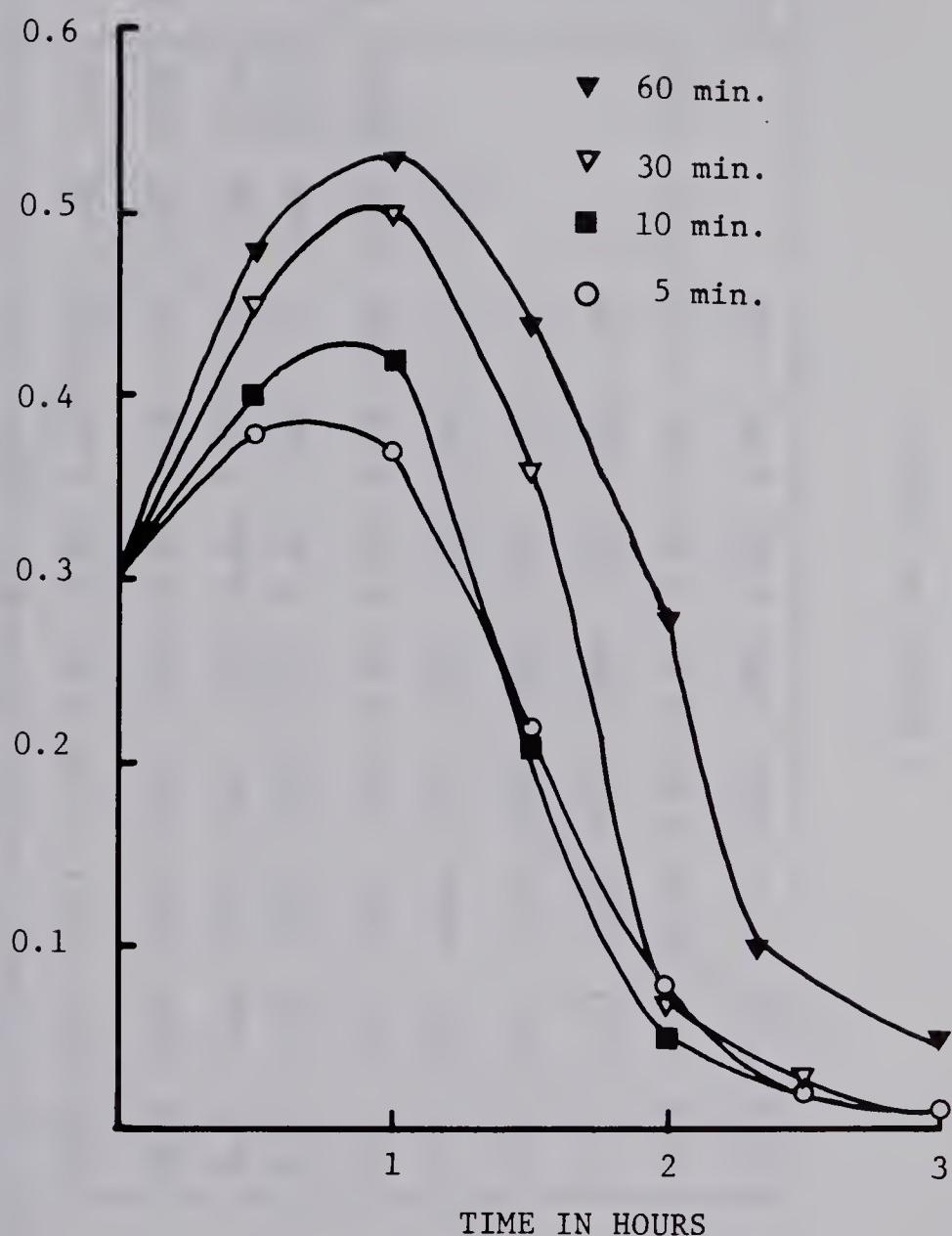


FIGURE 13. Effect of penicillin (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) added at different intervals after Ø7. Ø:cell, ca. 1.5:1

TABLE IX

THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT CONCENTRATIONS OF D-CYCLOCERINE

<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ						HOURS						
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	Amax	t _i	t _{1/2}
D-cyclos. 100 μ g/ml + \emptyset 7	0.31	0.43	0.47	0.19	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.47	1.3	1.6
D-cyclos. 10 μ g/ml + \emptyset 7	0.31	0.45	0.59	0.59	0.48	0.35	0.16	0.10	0.07	0.05	0.59	2.6	3.1
D-cyclos. 1 μ g/ml + \emptyset 7	0.31	0.46	0.63	0.62	0.58	0.39	0.18	0.11	0.09	0.09	0.63	2.7	3.2
D-cyclos. 0.1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.48	0.65	0.64	0.59	0.40	0.18	0.12	0.09	0.07	0.65	2.7	3.3
D-cyclos. 100 μ g/ml	0.31	0.43	0.51	0.55	0.54	0.51	0.49	0.48	0.45	0.42	0.55	(6.6) (9.5)	
D-cyclos. 10 μ g/ml	0.31	0.50	0.69	0.85	0.98	1.10	1.16	1.22	1.30	-	>1.30	-	-
D-cyclos. 1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.51	0.70	0.85	1.00	1.10	1.22	1.30	-	-	>1.30	-	-
D-cyclos. 0.1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.51	0.70	0.87	1.00	1.16	1.22	1.30	-	-	>1.30	-	-
\emptyset 7 only	0.31	0.50	0.66	0.65	0.54	0.36	0.16	0.10	0.08	0.06	0.66	2.6	3.1
<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 only	0.31	0.51	0.71	0.85	1.00	1.16	1.22	1.30	-	-	>1.30	-	-

 \emptyset :cell ca. 1.5:1

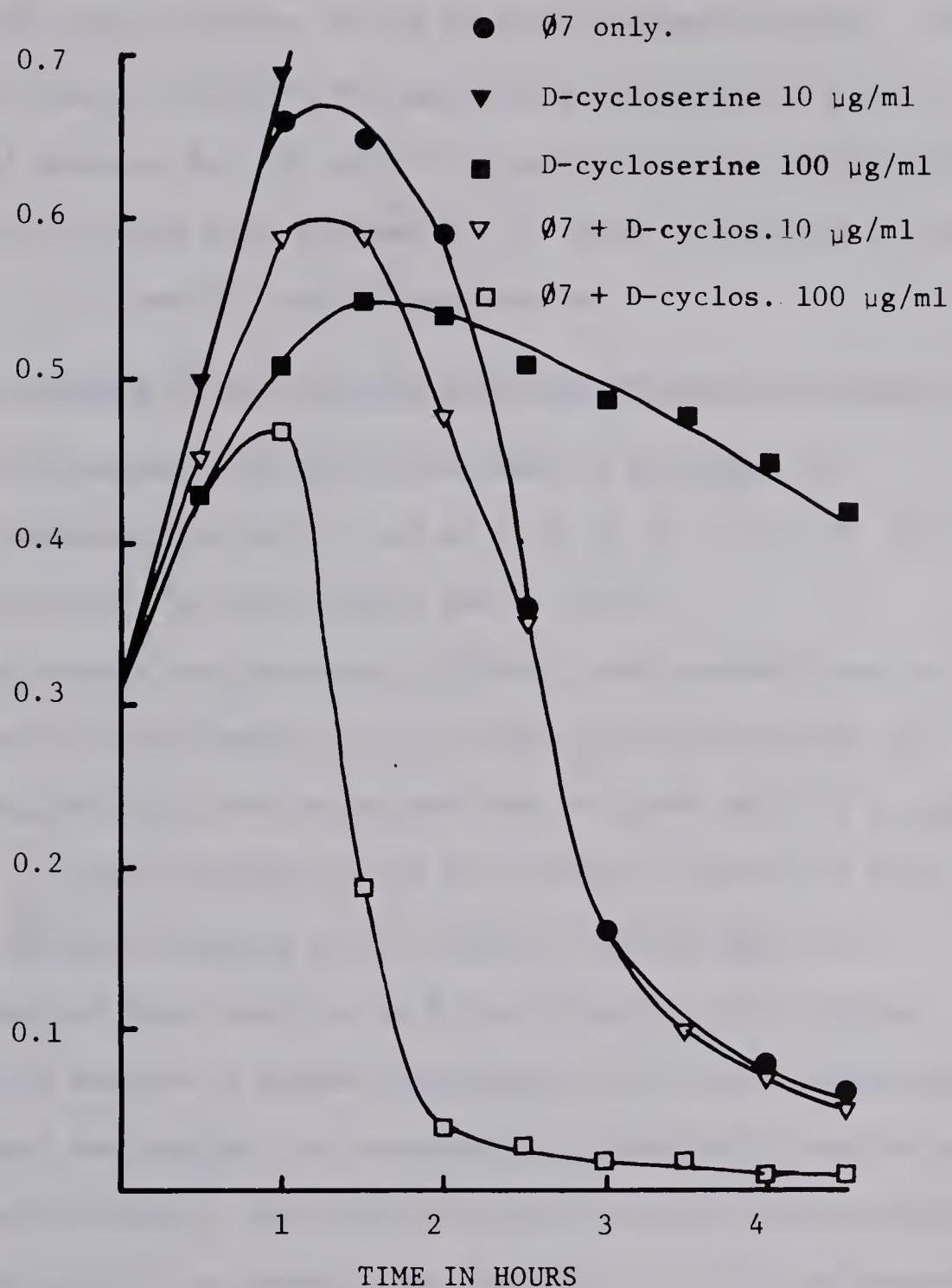


FIGURE 14. The effect of different concentrations of D-cycloserine. Ø:cell ca. 1.5:1.

was used there was a decrease in the maximum absorbance values. Also, a half-lysis time of 1.6 hours was observed as compared to 3.1 and 9.5 hours for ϕ 7 alone, or for 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ D-cycloserine alone, respectively. Similar lytic patterns were obtained for ϕ 7 alone, as well as in the presence of 10, 1, and 0.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ D-cycloserine.

The effect of adding ϕ 7 at different intervals after D-cycloserine (100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)

D-cycloserine (100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) was added to S. aureus PS7 suspension immediately after ϕ 7, and at 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 20, 30, and 60 minute periods. The ϕ :cell ratio was ca. 1.5:1.

The results are presented in Table X and selected data in Fig. 15. The addition of D-cycloserine up to 10 minutes prior to ϕ 7 did not appear to affect significantly the extent and rate of rapid lysis of S. aureus PS7 by ϕ 7. A slight increase in the half-lysis time from 1.4 to 1.8 hours was, however, observed as the interval between addition of D-cycloserine and later addition of ϕ 7 was extended to 10 minutes. At 20, 30, and 60 minutes, a marked curtailment of the rate and the extent of rapid lysis was evident, the corresponding half-lysis times being 5.9, 6.9, and 9.1 hours. The lytic patterns at these times resembled more and more that to be expected for 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of D-cycloserine acting alone against S. aureus PS7.

The effect of different concentrations of vancomycin

S. aureus PS7 was tested against ϕ 7 in combination with vancomycin at concentrations of 10, 5, and 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$. The ϕ :cell ratio was 1.5:1.

TABLE X

THE EFFECT OF ADDING $\phi 7$ AT DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER D-CYLOSSERINE (100 μ g/ml)

<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ						HOURS				
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	Amax	t _i	t _{1/2}
$\phi 7$ immediately after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.37	0.37	0.17	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.37	1.2	1.4
$\phi 7$ 2 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.38	0.37	0.16	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.38	1.2	1.4
$\phi 7$ 3 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.38	0.38	0.16	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.38	1.2	1.4
$\phi 7$ 4 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.38	0.39	0.18	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.39	1.2	1.4
$\phi 7$ 5 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.38	0.38	0.17	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.38	1.2	1.6
$\phi 7$ 6 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.38	0.38	0.19	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.38	1.2	1.6
$\phi 7$ 10 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.38	0.39	0.28	0.09	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.39	1.5
$\phi 7$ 20 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.38	0.40	0.40	0.36	0.33	0.30	0.28	0.25	0.23	0.40
$\phi 7$ 30 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.38	0.41	0.42	0.41	0.40	0.39	0.37	0.35	0.33	0.42
$\phi 7$ 60 min. after D-cyclos.	0.30	0.39	0.41	0.43	0.42	0.39	0.38	0.36	0.36	0.34	0.43

 ϕ : cell ca. 1.5:1D-cyclos. 100 μ g/ml

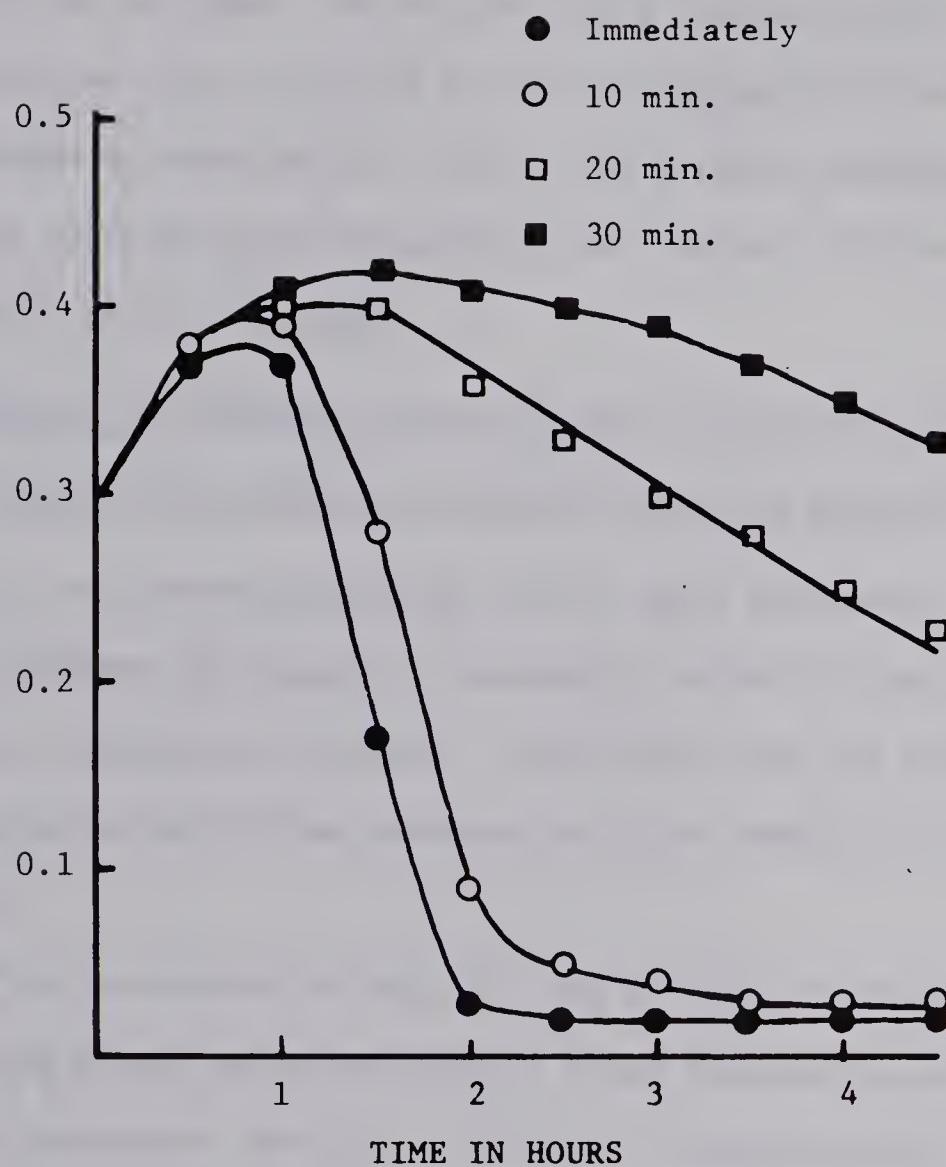


FIGURE 15. The effect of adding Ø7 at different intervals after D-cycloserine (100 µg/ml). Ø:cell, ca. 1.5:1.

The results are presented in Table XI and partly in Fig. 16, and show that 10 µg/ml of vancomycin added together with Ø7 caused considerable inhibition of lysis, the pattern being similar to that observed when vancomycin alone was used against S. aureus PS7. The smaller concentrations of vancomycin, 5 µg/ml, and 1 µg/ml, permitted rapid lysis. These concentrations of antibiotics, however, did not significantly inhibit bacterial growth.

The effect of adding Ø7 at different intervals after vancomycin (10 µg/ml) and of adding vancomycin (10 µg/ml) at different intervals after Ø7.

S. aureus PS7 was tested against Ø7 and 10 µg/ml vancomycin. The effect of the addition of vancomycin immediately after Ø7, and at 5, 10, and 30 minute periods was followed. The effect when the order of addition of vancomycin and Ø7 was reversed was also examined for the same time intervals.

The results are presented in Table XII and in Fig. 17, where it can be seen that when Ø7 was added immediately after vancomycin and for increasing periods thereafter, the rate of lysis was significantly inhibited. When vancomycin was added immediately after Ø7 there was also inhibition of lysis of S. aureus PS7 suspensions. With greater delay in the addition of vancomycin, however, there was decreased inhibition, and rapid lysis ensued, the half-lysis times for the 5, 10, and 15 minute periods being 2.4, 1.9, and 2.1 hours respectively.

The effect of different concentrations of bacitracin.

The effect of Ø7 in combination with 100, 10, and 1 µg/ml of

TABLE XI

THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT CONCENTRATIONS OF VANCOMYCIN

<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ										HOURS		
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	Amax	t _i	t $\frac{1}{2}$
Van., 10 μ g/ml + Ø7	0.31	0.42	0.43	0.43	0.40	0.38	0.37	0.34	0.33	0.31	0.43	4.3	(9.4)
Van., 5 μ g/ml + Ø7	0.31	0.47	0.63	0.59	0.52	0.41	0.18	0.10	0.08	0.07	0.63	2.7	3.2
Van., 1 μ g/ml + Ø7	0.31	0.47	0.63	0.59	0.52	0.43	0.20	0.12	0.09	0.07	0.63	2.8	3.4
Van., 10 μ g/ml	0.31	0.43	0.45	0.45	0.44	0.43	0.42	0.40	0.39	0.38	0.45	7.0	(14.6)
Van., 5 μ g/ml	0.31	0.50	0.69	0.83	0.96	1.10	-	-	-	-	>1.10	-	-
Van., 1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.50	0.69	0.83	0.96	1.10	-	-	-	-	>1.10	-	-
Ø7 only	0.31	0.50	0.64	0.59	0.55	0.38	0.16	0.10	0.08	0.07	0.64	2.6	3.2
<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 only	0.31	0.53	0.72	0.89	1.02	1.19	-	-	-	-	>1.19	-	-

Ø:cell, ca. 1.5:1

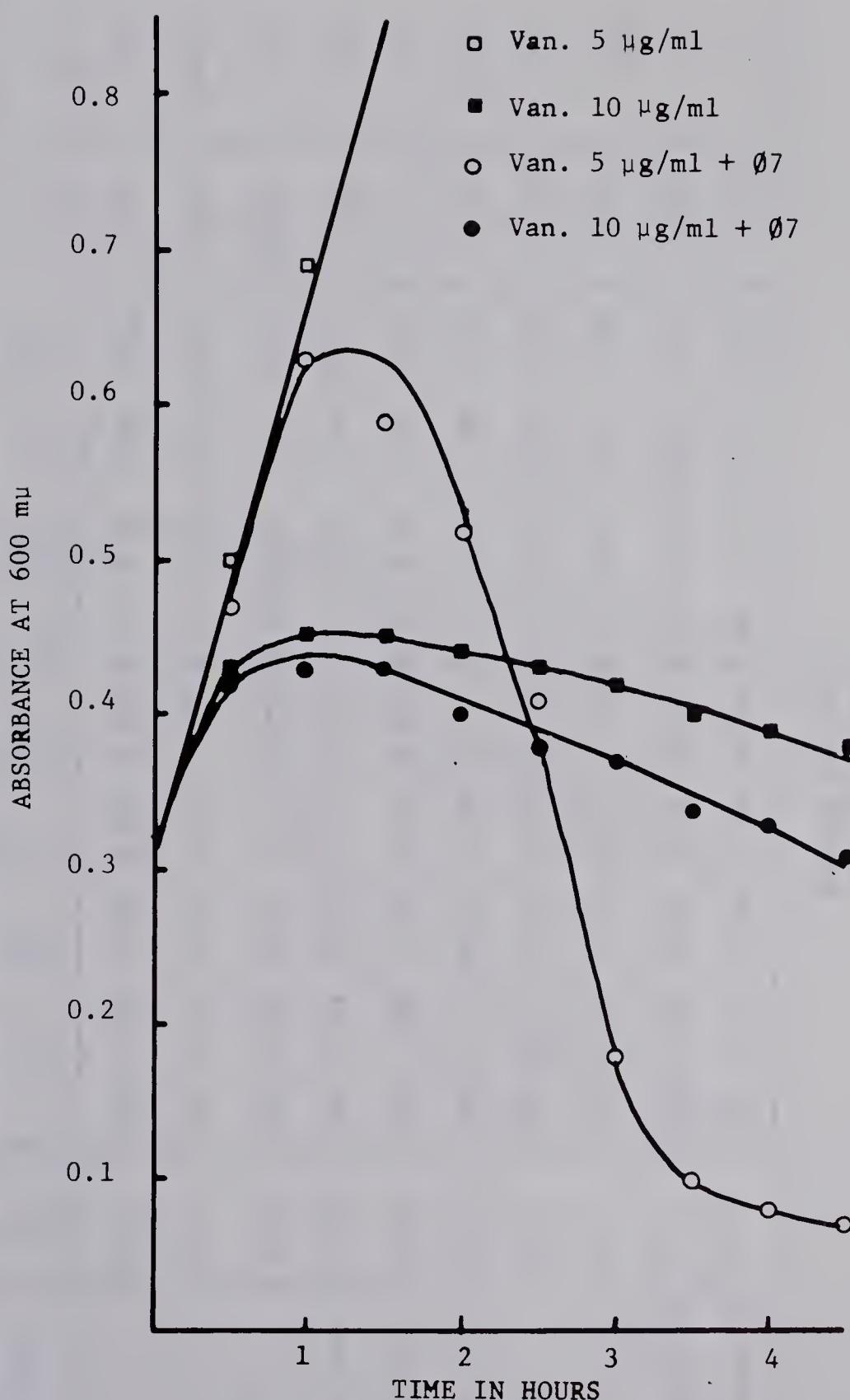


FIGURE 16. The effect of different concentrations of vancomycin.
 Ø:cell, ca. 1.5:1.

TABLE XII

THE EFFECT OF ADDING $\phi 7$ AT DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER VANCOMYCIN
 (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) AND OF ADDING VANCOMYCIN (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) AT
 DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER $\phi 7$

<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ										HOURS		
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	Amax	t _i	t _{1/2}
$\phi 7$ only	0.31	0.50	0.60	0.59	0.48	0.25	0.10	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.60	2.3	2.7
Van.	0.31	0.41	0.42	0.41	0.39	0.38	0.36	0.35	0.34	0.42	(6.0)	-	
$\phi 7$ immediately after van.	0.31	0.40	0.41	0.37	0.31	0.28	0.26	0.24	0.24	0.21	0.41	2.0	(6.2)
$\phi 7$ 5 min. after van.	0.31	0.40	0.41	0.37	0.33	0.32	0.31	0.31	0.28	0.28	0.41	4.0	-
$\phi 7$ 10 min. after van.	0.31	0.40	0.40	0.41	0.38	0.37	0.35	0.34	0.34	0.32	0.41	4.5	-
$\phi 7$ 30 min. after van.	0.31	0.40	0.41	0.41	0.39	0.38	0.37	0.36	0.36	0.34	0.41	(6.0)	-
Van. immediately after $\phi 7$	0.31	0.39	0.41	0.36	0.29	0.25	0.23	0.21	0.20	0.18	0.41	1.9	-
Van. 5 min. after $\phi 7$	0.31	0.44	0.46	0.34	0.19	0.15	0.12	0.11	0.09	0.08	0.46	1.6	2.4
Van. 10 min. after $\phi 7$	0.31	0.45	0.46	0.31	0.14	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.46	1.5	1.9
Van. 30 min. after $\phi 7$	0.31	0.51	0.53	0.40	0.19	0.08	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.53	1.7	2.1

ϕ :cell ca. 1.5:1
 Van. 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

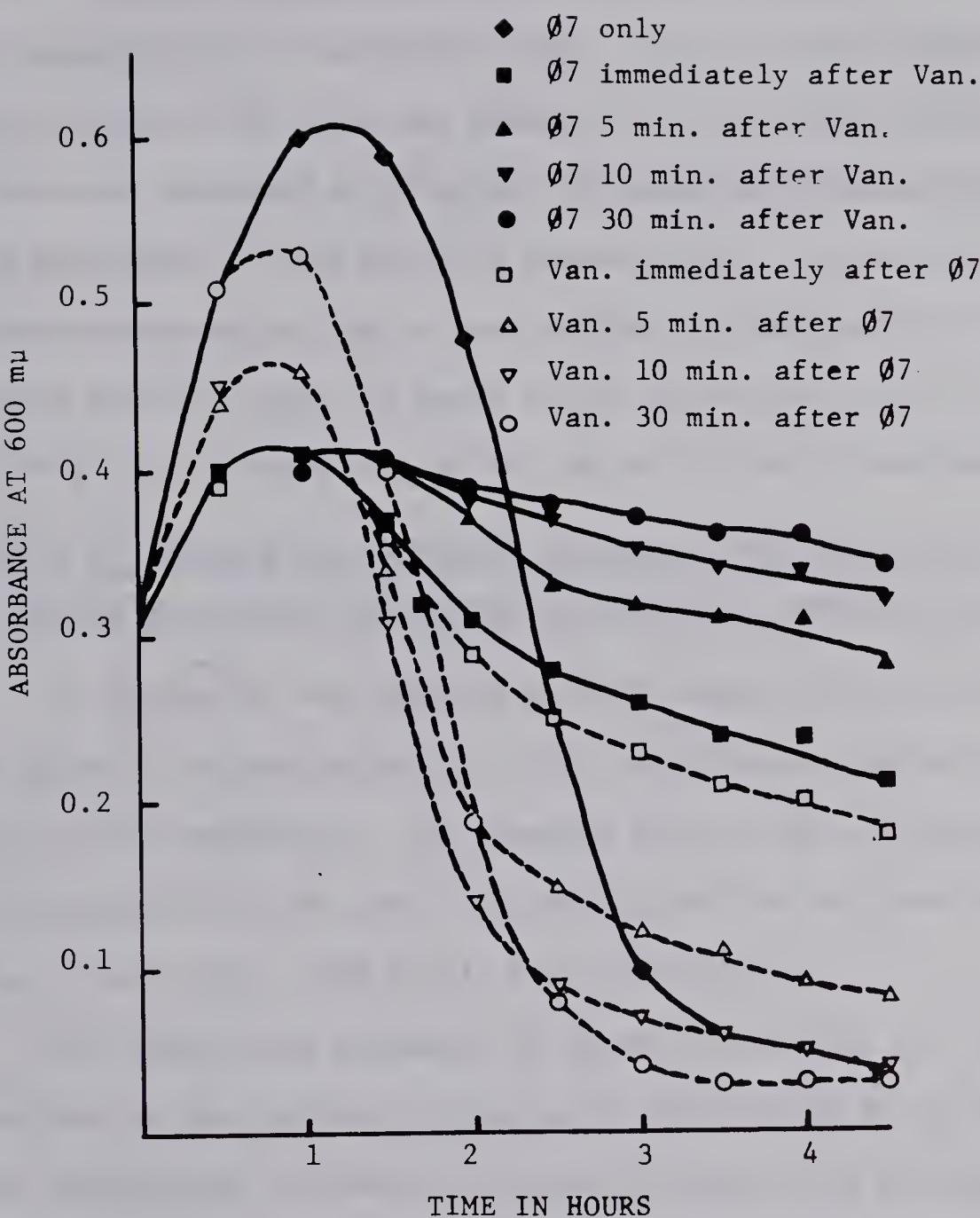


FIGURE 17. The effect of adding $\Phi 7$ at different intervals after vancomycin (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$), and of adding vancomycin (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$), at different intervals after $\Phi 7$. Φ :cell, ca. 1.5:1.

bacitracin acting against S. aureus PS7 was examined. The ϕ :cell ratio was 1.5:1. Results are presented in Table XIII and Fig. 18. With the lowest concentration of bacitracin used, 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, a lytic pattern similar to that for $\phi 7$ alone was observed. As the concentration of bacitracin was increased to 10 μg and 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ the maximum absorbances reached decreased to 0.68 and 0.52 respectively. The rate of rapid lysis also decreased, as can be seen in Fig. 18, although the half-lysis times were similar, being 3.0 hours for $\phi 7$ alone, and 3.0, 3.0, and 3.1 hours for $\phi 7$ in combination with 100, 10 and 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of bacitracin.

The effect of adding $\phi 7$ at different intervals after bacitracin (100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) and of adding bacitracin (100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) at different intervals after $\phi 7$

S. aureus PS7 was infected with $\phi 7$ immediately after addition of 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of bacitracin and at 5, 10, and 30 minute periods after the addition of the antibiotic. The reversed order of $\phi 7$ and bacitracin was also investigated for the same time period, and for the same concentration of bacitracin. The ϕ :cell ratio was ca. 1:1.

The results are presented in Table XIV and Fig. 19. It can be seen that as the interval following the addition of $\phi 7$ to bacitracin-treated cultures was increased, the rate of rapid lysis decreased. The half-lysis times for $\phi 7$ immediately after bacitracin and at 5, 10, and 30 minute intervals were 2.1, 2.7, 3.5 and 4.5 hours respectively, the curves resembling more and more that for 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ bacitracin alone acting against S. aureus PS7. When bacitracin was added after $\phi 7$, the rate of lysis was rapid. The maximum absorbance values when bacitracin

TABLE XIII

THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT CONCENTRATIONS OF BACITRACIN

	HOURS										Amax	ti	ti		
	ABSORBANCE AT 600m μ														
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.					
<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	0										0.41	1.8	3.0		
Bacit. 100 μ g/ml + Ø7	0.31	0.41	0.41	0.36	0.28	0.20	0.15	0.11	0.08	0.07	0.52	2.3	3.0		
Bacit. 10 μ g/ml + Ø7	0.31	0.46	0.52	0.51	0.40	0.28	0.14	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.68	2.8	3.1		
Bacit. 1 μ g/ml + Ø7	0.31	0.48	0.65	0.68	0.67	0.47	0.18	0.11	0.08	0.08	0.43	3.4	(6.5)		
Bacit. 100 μ g/ml	0.31	0.43	0.42	0.41	0.39	0.36	0.33	0.31	0.27	0.23	>1.10	-	-		
Bacit. 10 μ g/ml	0.31	0.48	0.59	0.66	0.75	0.78	0.83	0.89	0.92	1.10	>1.40	-	-		
Bacit. 1 μ g/ml	0.31	0.52	0.70	0.85	1.10	1.13	1.22	1.35	1.40	-	0.64	2.4	3.0		
Ø7 only added	0.31	0.52	0.64	0.63	0.59	0.28	0.14	0.10	0.08	0.07	>1.40	-	-		
<u>S. aureus</u> only	0.31	0.55	0.75	0.89	1.05	1.19	1.26	1.35	1.40	-					

Ø:cell ca. 1.5:1

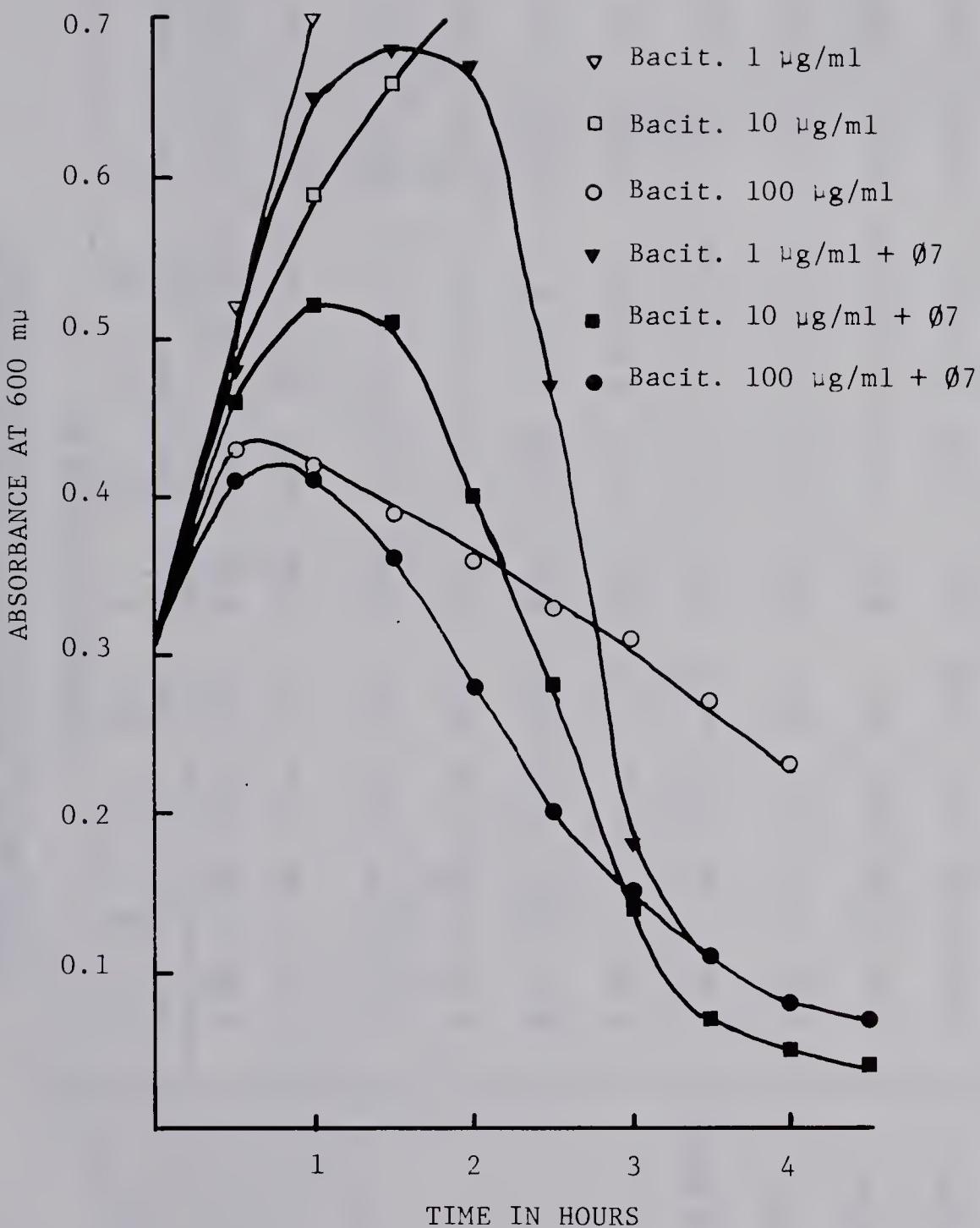


FIGURE 18. The effect of different concentrations of bacitracin.
 ϕ :cell, ca. 1.5:1

TABLE XIV

THE EFFECT OF ADDING $\emptyset 7$ AT DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER
BACITRACIN (100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) AND OF ADDING BACITRACIN
(100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) AT DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER $\emptyset 7$

	ABSORBANCE AT 600 $\text{m}\mu$										HOURS
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	4 hrs.	Amax	
S. aureus PS7 plus:	0										
$\emptyset 7$ only added	0.30	0.46	0.61	0.65	0.63	0.46	0.22	0.13	0.10	0.65	2.7
Bacit.	0.30	0.40	0.42	0.41	0.39	0.35	0.31	0.26	0.21	0.42	3.0
$\emptyset 7$ immediately after Bacit.	0.30	0.38	0.40	0.34	0.20	0.06	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.40	1.6
$\emptyset 7$, 5 min. after Bacit.	0.30	0.38	0.40	0.37	0.30	0.18	0.10	0.05	0.03	0.40	2.0
$\emptyset 7$, 10 min. after Bacit.	0.30	0.39	0.41	0.40	0.35	0.30	0.22	0.15	0.10	0.41	2.4
$\emptyset 7$, 30 min. after Bacit.	0.30	0.39	0.41	0.41	0.38	0.34	0.30	0.25	0.20	0.41	2.9
Bacit. immediately after $\emptyset 7$	0.30	0.38	0.40	0.33	0.15	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.40	1.6
Bacit., 5 min. after $\emptyset 7$	0.30	0.40	0.43	0.34	0.06	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.43	1.5
Bacit., 10 min. after $\emptyset 7$	0.30	0.42	0.45	0.37	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.45	1.5
Bacit., 30 min. after $\emptyset 7$	0.30	0.48	0.56	0.40	0.11	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.56	1.6

\emptyset : cell ca. 1:1
 Bacit. 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$

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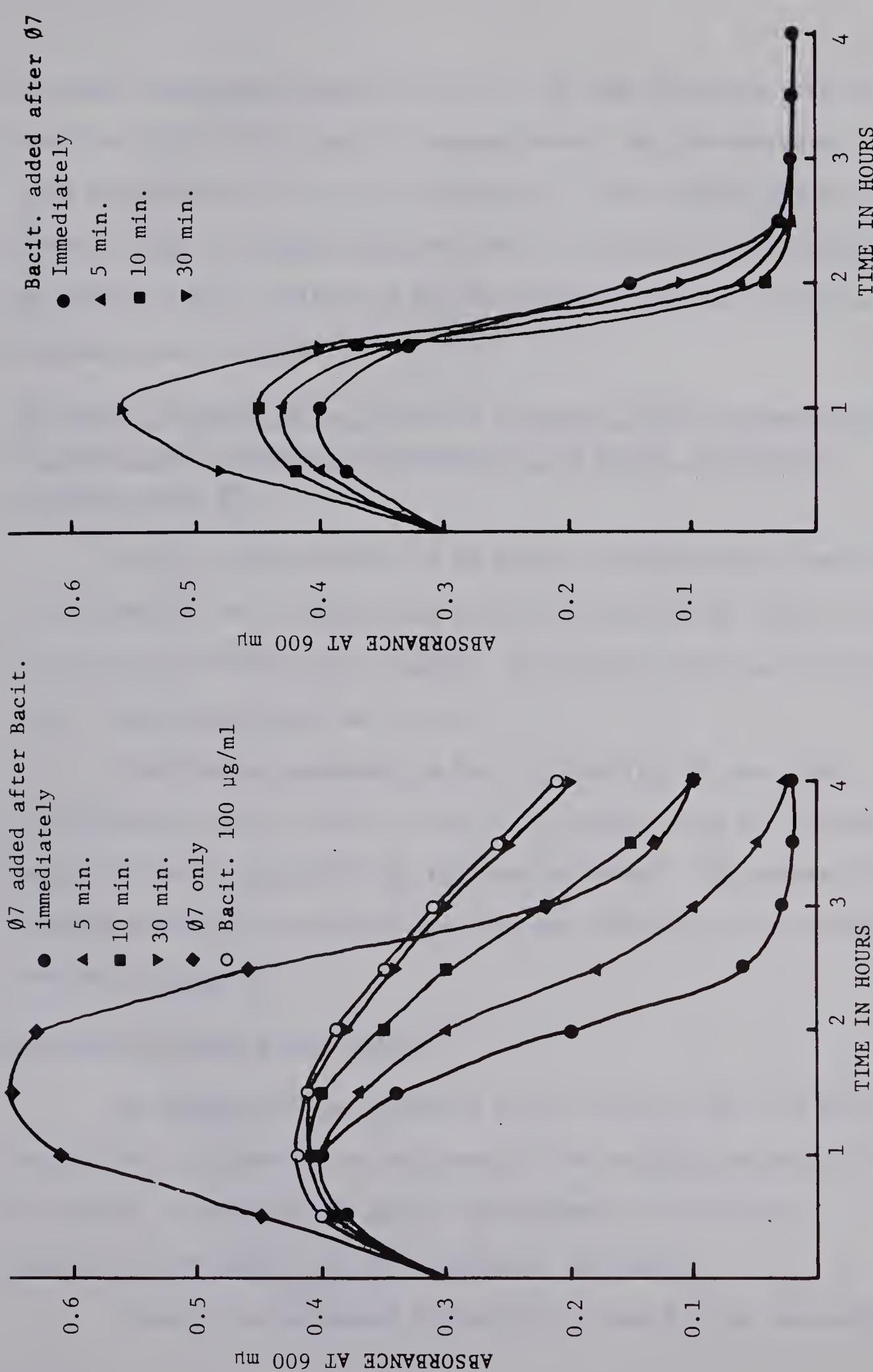


FIGURE 19. The effect of adding ϕ 7 at different intervals after bacitracin (100 μ g/ml), and of adding bacitracin (100 μ g/ml) at different intervals after ϕ 7. ϕ :cell, ca. 1:1.

was added immediately after Ø7 and at 5, 10, and 30 minute periods, were 0.40, 0.43, 0.45, and 0.56 respectively. The corresponding half-lysis times were 2.0, 1.7, 1.6, 1.9 hours. These values, and the curves in Fig. 19 suggest that the rate of rapid lysis was increased as the period between addition of Ø7 and the later addition of 100 µg of bacitracin was increased.

The effect of adding Ø7 at different intervals after chloramphenicol (50 µg/ml) and of adding chloramphenicol (50 µg/ml) at different intervals after Ø7.

Using a concentration of 50 µg/ml chloramphenicol, the effect of the addition of Ø7 immediately after this antibiotic, and at 5, 10, and 30 minute intervals was studied. The reverse order was also investigated. Phage:cell ratio was ca. 1:1.

The results presented in Table XV and Fig. 20 show that chloramphenicol given before, or up to 30 minutes after Ø7, abolished rapid lysis of S. aureus PS7 by this bacteriophage. The pattern of changing absorbances resembled that for the antibiotic alone acting against S. aureus PS7.

The effect of high Ø:cell ratio.

S. aureus PS7 was subjected to the action of Ø7 at a Ø:cell ratio of 6:1, in combination with each of the antibiotics penicillin, (10 µg/ml), vancomycin (10 µg/ml), D-cycloserine (100 µg/ml), bacitracin (100 µg/ml) and chloramphenicol (20 µg/ml).

Results are presented in Table XVI. Rapid lysis occurred in

TABLE XV

THE EFFECT OF ADDING $\phi 7$ AT DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER CHLORAMPHENICOL
(50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) AND OF ADDING CHLORAMPHENICOL (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) AT
DIFFERENT INTERVALS AFTER $\phi 7$

	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ										HOURS
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hr.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	$3\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	Amax	t _i	
<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	0										
$\phi 7$ only added	0.31	0.45	0.61	0.65	0.63	0.42	0.13	0.08	-	2.6	2.9
Chloramph.	0.31	0.40	0.46	0.48	0.50	0.52	0.54	0.55	-	-	-
$\phi 7$ immediately after chloramph.	0.31	0.40	0.44	0.47	0.49	0.52	0.55	0.55	-	-	-
$\phi 7$ 5 min. after chloramph.	0.31	0.39	0.44	0.46	0.47	0.50	0.52	0.54	-	-	-
$\phi 7$ 10 min. after chloramph.	0.31	0.40	0.43	0.46	0.48	0.50	0.53	0.54	-	-	-
$\phi 7$ 30 min. after chloramph.	0.31	0.40	0.43	0.47	0.50	0.51	0.54	0.55	-	-	-
Chloramph. immediately after $\phi 7$	0.31	0.40	0.42	0.45	0.48	0.50	0.53	0.54	-	-	-
Chloramph. 5 min. after $\phi 7$	0.31	0.39	0.42	0.45	0.48	0.50	0.52	0.53	-	-	-
Chloramph. 10 min. after $\phi 7$	0.31	0.39	0.42	0.44	0.47	0.49	0.51	0.52	-	-	-
Chloramph. 30 min. after $\phi 7$	0.31	0.45	0.46	0.50	0.53	0.54	0.58	0.59	-	-	-

ϕ :cell, ca. 1:1
(Chloramph. 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)

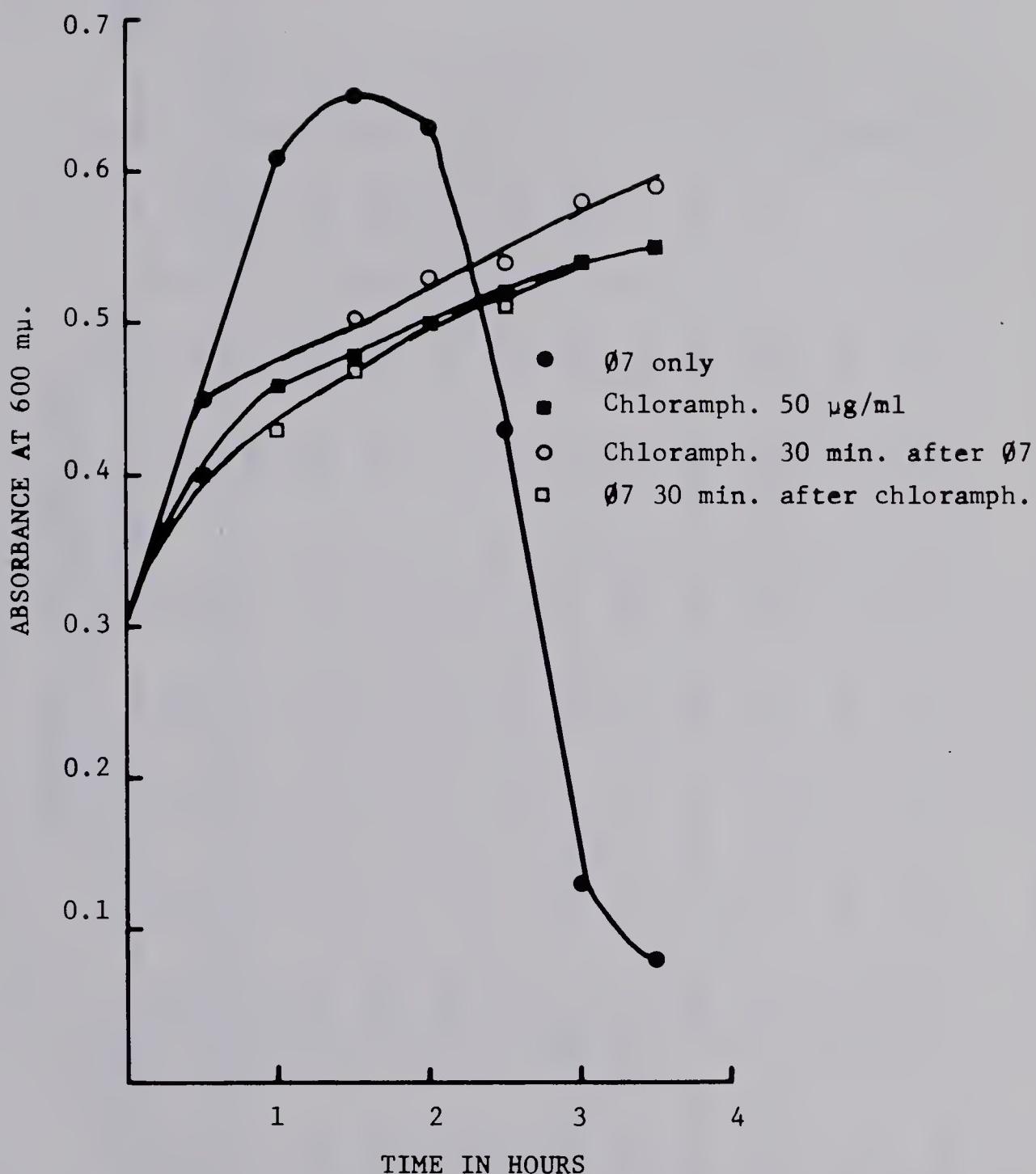


FIGURE 20. The effect of adding Ø7 at different intervals after chloramphenicol (50 µg/ml), and of adding chloramphenicol (50 µg/ml) at different intervals after Ø7.

TABLE XVI

THE EFFECT OF HIGH ϕ :CELL RATIO

<u>S. aureus</u> PS7 plus:	ABSORBANCE AT 600 m μ							HOURS	
	0 hr.	$\frac{1}{2}$ hr.	1 hr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	2 hrs.	$2\frac{1}{2}$ hrs.	3 hrs.	Amax	t _{1/2}
ϕ 7 only	0.31	0.42	0.50	0.43	0.22	0.10	0.08	0.50	1.8 2.2
* Pen. 10 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.34	0.34	0.20	0.06	0.02	0.01	0.34	1.2 1.7
† Pen. 10 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.34	0.35	0.21	0.06	0.03	0.02	0.35	1.2 1.7
* Van. 10 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.37	0.38	0.32	0.19	0.11	0.09	0.38	1.5 2.4
† Van. 10 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.37	0.39	0.34	0.22	0.14	0.10	0.39	1.5 2.3
* D-cyclos. 100 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.36	0.37	0.26	0.13	0.07	0.05	0.36	1.4 1.9
† D-cyclos. 100 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.37	0.37	0.27	0.11	0.06	0.05	0.37	1.4 1.9
* Bacit. 100 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.38	0.35	0.27	0.14	0.04	0.03	0.38	1.4 2.0
† Bacit. 100 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.38	0.36	0.29	0.15	0.04	0.02	0.38	1.4 2.0
* Chloramphen. 20 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.41	0.46	0.50	0.52	0.53	0.55	-	- -
† Chloramphen. 20 μ g/ml + ϕ 7	0.31	0.41	0.46	0.48	0.51	0.52	0.55	-	- -

 ϕ :cell ca. 6:1

* ϕ 7 added first and antibiotic immediately after.
 † Antibiotic added first and ϕ 7 immediately after.

all systems except that for chloramphenicol, where a reduction in absorbance was not observed.

DISCUSSION OF IN VITRO INVESTIGATIONS.

At the outset of this investigation it was found that $\phi 7$ could be propagated on S. aureus PS7 in ordinary nutrient broth. It soon became evident, however, that under such conditions the rate of lysis of S. aureus PS7 by $\phi 7$ was rather slow; in addition, early experiments showed that there was little adsorption of $\phi 7$ to S. aureus PS7 in 15 minutes. In view of the findings of Rountree (75) that phages 7, 42B and 42E had a specific requirement of 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ CaCl_2 for adsorption, it was considered desirable to investigate the effect of added CaCl_2 . That this might be important was also suggested by analogy with the results of Delbrück (11) who showed that a mutant of coliphage T4 required Ca^{++} for adsorption. Also Adams (1) had reported that coliphage T5 needed Ca^{++} for development and replication although it did not require this cation for adsorption. Blair and Williams (9) reported their observations at the Staphylococcus Reference Laboratory, Colindale, London, which indicated that even slight excess heating of media may bind calcium in such a manner that the ionic form is not available for the more Ca^{++} dependent phages. It seems likely that this latter explanation could account for the slow adsorption and lysis observed in the $\phi 7$ - S. aureus PS7 system when the broth medium was not supplemented with CaCl_2 .

When CaCl_2 was added to the nutrient broth, rapid lysis of S. aureus PS7 by $\phi 7$ was obtained. It was found however, that beyond

75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ added CaCl_2 , there was no further increase in the efficiency of lysis, indicating that above this level the adsorption of $\emptyset 7$ to S. aureus PS7 was no longer concentration-dependent. The use of 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of CaCl_2 to supplement nutrient broth in later experiments gave consistent lytic and adsorption responses.

The adsorption of $\emptyset 7$ to log phase S. aureus PS7 suspensions in NBCa⁺⁺ was found to be rapid. In 5 minutes ca. 92 - 95% of added $\emptyset 7$ was adsorbed. The adsorption constant over this period was $2.17 \times 10^{-9} \text{ ml min}^{-1}$, a value about 10 times that obtained by Krueger (42) for Staphylococcus aureus and a staphylococcus phage. Krueger (42) also reported that the adsorption constant was the same for live and heat-killed bacteria. Delbrück (11) however, showed that the adsorption rate constants for coliphages to Escherichia coli varied considerably depending on the physiological state of the bacteria; maximum adsorption rates being obtained when bacteria were grown with aeration and were in the log phase. The high adsorption rate of $\emptyset 7$ to S. aureus PS7 as compared with Krueger's reported results may have been due more to differences in the physiological state of the bacteria than to differences in the phage and bacterial strains used.

The results of the adsorption of $\emptyset 7$ to S. aureus PS7 also showed that initially the bulk of the \emptyset adsorbed rapidly and the later fractions more slowly. This is in keeping with the observations of Schlesinger (77), who showed that any batch of \emptyset -lysate was a heterogeneous mixture which could be divided into 3 main fractions - a large

fraction which adsorbed rapidly, a smaller fraction which adsorbed more slowly and a very small residual fraction which did not adsorb at all.

The presence of the antibiotics penicillin, D-cycloserine, oxacillin, chloramphenicol, vancomycin, and bacitracin did not affect the adsorption of \emptyset 7 to S. aureus PS7. Of these antibiotics penicillin (10), vancomycin (69), and chloramphenicol (95) are known to bind rapidly to bacterial cells. Bacitracin, which competes with penicillin for binding sites (69) and oxacillin, which is closely related to penicillin, are also expected to be rapidly bound. The binding of penicillin (10) and vancomycin (69) is irreversible, while that of chloramphenicol is known to be reversible on washing (95). Since for the concentration of antibiotics used there are expected to be several thousands of antibiotic molecules available to each bacterial cell in the adsorption mixture, and inasmuch as there was no interference with the rate of adsorption of \emptyset 7, it is reasonable to conclude that the binding of the antibiotics used to S. aureus PS7 does not take place at the \emptyset receptor sites.

One-step growth of \emptyset 7 with S. aureus PS7 as host at 37°C showed a latent period of ca. 30 minutes, a burst size of ca. 95, and a rise period of ca. 22 minutes. Other experiments showed that 120 minutes after infection, titrable \emptyset had increased 140-fold. In the presence of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of penicillin, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ D-cycloserine, and 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of vancomycin there was only a 2, 3, and 5-fold increase respectively in titrable \emptyset after 120 minutes. Assays for a comparable period in the presence of 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of bacitracin and 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of chloramphenicol

showed a decrease of ca. 50% in the titrable \emptyset compared to input. Since the adsorption of $\emptyset 7$ to bacteria was unaffected by antibiotic and effectively greater than 90% complete in 5 minutes, the plaques obtained from bacteria initially infected would seem to suggest a certain degree of reversibility of the effects of the antibiotic permitting plaque formation when the samples were diluted for assay. This is in keeping with the known reversibility of the binding of chloramphenicol on washing (95), but is not in accord with the irreversible nature of the binding of vancomycin to bacterial cells. Irreversibility of binding of antibiotic does not however necessarily rule out reversibility of some antibiotic effects, an observation certainly true for penicillin, as reported by Rogers (17).

A common denominator in the activity of the antibiotics penicillin, vancomycin, bacitracin, and D-cycloserine is that they affect murein synthesis. On the basis of this consideration alone, it would be expected that the cell wall of affected bacteria should be structurally weakened, thus facilitating lysis by phage-induced lysozymes when \emptyset and antibiotics were permitted to act in conjunction. However, the situation is not as simple as this.

The action of penicillin and D-cycloserine has been shown to be almost exclusively directed against mechanisms involved in cell wall synthesis (69). It would be expected, therefore, that these two antibiotics would more closely resemble each other in their influence on the activity of $\emptyset 7$ against S. aureus PS7. Results appear to bear this

out. Both antibiotics permitted a limited increase in ϕ yield. When they were added prior to ϕ infection the extent of the inhibition of rapid lysis appeared to be comparable for up to 10 minutes; beyond this period the penicillin-treated systems showed a greater decrease in turbidity than was the case for D-cycloserine.

When added simultaneously with ϕ 7, penicillin or D-cycloserine did not prevent lysis of S. aureus PS7. On the contrary, lysis was hastened. It would seem therefore that while there is a considerable reduction in the amount of complete ϕ produced, there appears to be no interference with the production or activity of ϕ -directed lysozymes. When either of these antibiotics was added after infection there was no inhibition of rapid lysis, again indicating no interference with lysozyme activity.

In contrast to the effects observed with the two above-mentioned antibiotics, there was marked inhibition of lysis when vancomycin in a concentration inhibitory to bacterial growth, was added to S. aureus PS7 simultaneously with ϕ 7. As expected, therefore, pre-treatment with vancomycin also caused marked inhibition of rapid lysis. However, where the addition of vancomycin to previously ϕ -infected bacteria was delayed, the effect of the antibiotic decreased as the time of delayed addition was increased. These observations would seem to indicate that vancomycin interferes with early ϕ -directed activity.

Reynolds (70) has pointed out that bacitracin and vancomycin appear to be similar in most of their effects on sensitive bacteria.

Results using the $\emptyset 7$ - S. aureus PS7 system appear to reflect such similarity. There was inhibition of rapid lysis when bacitracin was added at the same time as $\emptyset 7$, although this was not so clearly manifested as with vancomycin. The two antibiotics were also similar in that on delayed addition to $\emptyset 7$ -infected bacteria the inhibition of rapid lysis was decreased proportionally to the delay. However, bacitracin and vancomycin were dissimilar in that while the latter appeared to allow some increase in titrable \emptyset , the former did not.

The results obtained for the effect of penicillin, D-cycloserine, vancomycin and bacitracin on the lysis of S. aureus PS7 by $\emptyset 7$ contrasted sharply with those obtained with chloramphenicol. Using this latter antibiotic, addition either together with $\emptyset 7$, or before $\emptyset 7$, or up to 30 minutes after $\emptyset 7$, caused virtually complete inhibition of rapid lysis. Where the antibiotic was added either at the same time as $\emptyset 7$ or before $\emptyset 7$ the observed inhibition of lysis could easily be explained on the basis of the action of the antibiotic in preventing \emptyset replication (88) due to inhibition of the synthesis of early enzymes and other enzymes required for \emptyset replication, including lysozymes. Added 30 minutes after $\emptyset 7$, it might be expected that the formation of lysozymes (which commences midway in the latent period (88)) would already be completed and, as a result, there would be some readily observable decrease in the turbidity of the suspensions. Traut and Munro (91) found that chloramphenicol inhibits the effect of puromycin in releasing phenylalanine peptides from poly-phenylalanyl-s-RNA attached to ribosomes. It is interesting to speculate

that \emptyset -induced lysozymes may still be attached to ribosomes towards the end of the latent period of the \emptyset -replication cycle and that the addition of chloramphenicol as late as 30 minutes after infection may in some way have prevented the release of the lytic enzymes from the ribosomes, with the result that lysis and accompanying decrease in the turbidity was not observed.

The results of infection with high concentration of \emptyset 7 would appear to underscore some of the observations already indicated. As expected, penicillin and D-cycloserine did not prevent rapid lysis of the bacteria. Vancomycin, however, did not inhibit lysis in the presence of high \emptyset concentration (\emptyset :cell, ca. 6:1) as it did for a lower \emptyset concentration (\emptyset :cell; ca. 1.5:1). "Lysis from without" would not satisfactorily explain the decreased turbidity observed in the case of penicillin, D-cycloserine, bacitracin, and vancomycin-treated suspensions of S. aureus PS7, since the turbidity of chloramphenicol-treated suspensions in the presence of high \emptyset 7 concentration did not show a similar decrease.

III

STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS, STAPHYLOPHAGE 7

AND ANTIBIOTICS IN MICE

INTRAPERITONEAL INOCULATION OF MICE
WITH STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS PS7

In order to obtain information relating to the lethality of S. aureus PS7 in mice, an in vivo experiment employing the stair-step design of Finney (21) was performed. In this and subsequent experiments involving mice, treatments were randomly assigned, in keeping with the principles outlined by Steel and Torrie (87).

Virulence of S. aureus PS7 for mice

One ml of S. aureus PS7 suspension of absorbance 1.0, harvested from an overnight culture on nutrient agar, was used to inoculate 100 ml of NB Ca⁺⁺. The inoculated culture in a 250 ml conical flask was inoculated at 37°C in a water-bath with shaking until the absorbance was ca. 0.5. This log phase suspension was concentrated 20:1 by centrifugation. Serial tenfold dilutions of the concentrated suspension were made using NB Ca⁺⁺ as diluent.

Mice (17.9 gm average weight) were intraperitoneally inoculated with 0.2 ml of the concentrated suspension and 0.2 ml of each dilution using a 2½ ml hypodermic syringe and a 26G $\frac{1}{2}$ inch needle. One mouse was used at each dilution. Death after 24 hours was noted and the observations were continued for 3 days.

The results showed that only the mouse receiving the highest dose (1.93×10^9 cfu) S. aureus PS7 died within 24 hours.

$\mathcal{O}(\log n \cdot \mathcal{O}(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^2)) = \mathcal{O}(n^2 \log n + n^3)$

THE ELLIPTIC PIGEONHOLE PRINCIPLE

Elliptic pigeonhole principle is a generalization of the standard pigeonhole principle.

Suppose we have n pigeons and m holes. If $n > m$, then at least one hole must contain more than one pigeon. This is because if all holes contained at most one pigeon, then there would be at most m pigeons.

Elliptic pigeonhole principle states that if $n > m$ pigeons are distributed among m holes, then at least one hole must contain more than one pigeon.

PROBLEMS AND EXERCISES

1. Suppose there are 100 pigeons and 50 holes.

a) Show that there must be at least one hole containing at least two pigeons. (Hint: If all holes contained at most one pigeon, then there would be at most 50 pigeons.)

b) Show that there must be at least one hole containing at least three pigeons. (Hint: If all holes contained at most two pigeons, then there would be at most 100 pigeons.)

c) Show that there must be at least one hole containing at least four pigeons. (Hint: If all holes contained at most three pigeons, then there would be at most 150 pigeons.)

d) Show that there must be at least one hole containing at least five pigeons. (Hint: If all holes contained at most four pigeons, then there would be at most 200 pigeons.)

e) Show that there must be at least one hole containing at least six pigeons. (Hint: If all holes contained at most five pigeons, then there would be at most 300 pigeons.)

f) Show that there must be at least one hole containing at least seven pigeons. (Hint: If all holes contained at most six pigeons, then there would be at most 420 pigeons.)

g) Show that there must be at least one hole containing at least eight pigeons. (Hint: If all holes contained at most seven pigeons, then there would be at most 560 pigeons.)

h) Show that there must be at least one hole containing at least nine pigeons. (Hint: If all holes contained at most eight pigeons, then there would be at most 720 pigeons.)

LD₅₀ determination.

A suspension of S. aureus PS7 containing 1.83×10^{11} cfu/ml was prepared. Serial tenfold dilutions of the concentrated suspension in NB Ca⁺⁺ were made and 0.2 ml portions of each dilution were inoculated intraperitoneally into 5 male mice of average weight 17.7 gm.

The results at 24 hours indicated that S. aureus PS7 had a low order of virulence for mice; only 3 out of 5 animals died at the highest cell dose ($10^{10.56}$ cfu) used. This lack of virulence may have been the result of repeated propagation on artificial media; an observation in keeping with those of Koenig and Melly (41). An attempt was therefore made to increase the virulence of the staphylococcal strain by repeated passage in the peritoneal cavity of mice, as suggested by Van de Velde (93).

Attempt to increase the virulence of S. aureus PS7 for mice.

Using one of the mice which had received an inoculum of $10^{10.56}$ cfu from the LD₅₀ experiment described above, 2.5 ml of NB Ca⁺⁺ was introduced into the peritoneal cavity ca. 30 hours post-inoculation. The animal was then anaesthetized and 1.5 ml of fluid withdrawn from the peritoneum and introduced intraperitoneally into another mouse (mouse #2). At the end of 24 hours this mouse was also anaesthetized, peritoneal fluid withdrawn and portions used to make smears on glass slides. A sample was also spread on a blood agar plate.

Under the microscope, the smears showed occasional intracellular and extracellular Gram-positive cocci. Only 12 colonies of S. aureus PS7

grew, after overnight incubation at 37°C, on the blood agar plate.

A suspension of the 12 staphylococcal colonies was made in ca. 1 ml NB Ca⁺⁺ and used to inoculate a third mouse. After 6 hours, peritoneal fluid from mouse #3 was passaged to yet another mouse (mouse #4), and this process was repeated at 6-hour intervals for a total of 4 passages. Peritoneal fluid from the last mouse in the series (mouse #7) was smeared on glass slides, and inoculated on nutrient agar plates. Incubation of the nutrient agar plates at 37°C overnight yielded only 13 colonies. A pooled suspension of these colonies in ca. 1 ml NB Ca⁺⁺ was made and a portion used to inoculate ca. 50 ml of NB Ca⁺⁺. After incubation to an absorbance of ca. 0.45, a twenty-fold concentration of the cultured organisms was made.

The virulence of this suspension was investigated by intraperitoneal inoculation of 0.2 ml portions of the concentrate and its 1/10 dilution in NB Ca⁺⁺; 2 mice were used for each suspension.

No deaths were observed after 24 hours, indicating that the organism had not acquired increased virulence for mice as a result of successive intraperitoneal transfer.

SELECTION OF A MOUSE-VIRULENT STRAIN OF STAPHYLOCOCCUS.

As a result of the above failure to increase the virulence of S. aureus PS7, it became necessary to look for a more lethal strain of staphylococcus.

A number of S. aureus cultures were obtained from the phage-typing section of this laboratory and from the collection of Dr. J. I. Payne. A loopful of each culture was used to inoculate 5 ml of NB Ca⁺⁺ in 16 mm x 120 mm test tubes and grown to an absorbance of ca. 1.0. Nutrient agar plates were inoculated from each culture and the organisms tested for antibiotic sensitivity by the disc-plate method, except for D-cycloserine where a cup-plate technique was employed.

The results of these tests are presented in Table XVII. Cultures 4, 18, and 19 showed sensitivity patterns similar to that for S. aureus PS7. The sensitivity tests of cycloserine were ambiguous. Cultures 4, 18, 19, together with S. aureus PS7 were re-tested using a tube technique which indicated sensitivity of all four strains to a cycloserine concentration of 100 µg/ml in NB Ca⁺⁺, as revealed by absence of visible turbidity after overnight incubation at 37°C.

Virulence of selected staphylococcal strains for mice

The virulence of S. aureus strains 4, 18, and 19 was tested by intraperitoneal inoculation of 0.2 ml of appropriate suspensions of absorbance ca. 1.0 into each of 3 male mice.

One death resulted from each of strains 4 and 18, and two deaths from strain 19.

TABLE XVII

ANTIBIOTIC SENSITIVITY OF *S. AUREUS* STRAINS

Antibiotic	<u><i>S. aureus</i> cultures</u>																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Vancomycin	30 µg	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Novobiocin	5 µg	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Chloramphenicol	5 µg	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Bacitracin	2 µg	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Streptomycin	2 µg	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	+	+	0	0	+
Penicillin	1 µg	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	0	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Oxacillin	2 µg	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Ampicillin	5 µg	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	±	0	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
D-cycloserine, 100 µg/ml		?	?	?	±	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	±	?	?
*D-cycloserine, 100 µg/ml													+			+	+	+	+	+

* Retested by tube method.

+ = sensitive

± = slightly sensitive

0 = not sensitive

? = ambiguous

Plaque-forming ability of selected staphylococcal strains.

Nutrient agar plates were seeded with samples of a broth culture of each staphylococcal strain and after drying, serial dilutions of stock Ø7 were spotted on each bacterial lawn with a loop as outlined by Blair and Williams (9). After overnight incubation, the "routine test dilution" (RTD) (9), and plaque-forming ability was noted for each strain. S. aureus PS7 was included for comparison. Results are recorded below.

<u>S. aureus</u> strain	RTD	Plaques
4	10^{-4}	+
18	10^{-4}	+
19	10^{-4}	+
PS7	10^{-4}	+

(+ = plaques formed)

Efficiency of plating (EOP) of Ø7 on selected staphylococcal strains, relative to S. aureus PS7.

Stock Ø7 suspension was assayed, using each staphylococcal strain as the seed culture.

Results showed S. aureus 19 gave the highest EOP value (83.2%) relative to S. aureus PS7.

On the basis of these observations S. aureus 19 was selected for further study since it showed the following desirable properties:

1. Wide range of sensitivity to antibiotics, comparable to S. aureus PS7.
2. Virulence for mice via the intraperitoneal route.

3. Allows Ø7 to form plaques with high EOP relative to S. aureus PS7.

Determination of LD₅₀ for S. aureus 19

S. aureus 19 from an overnight nutrient agar plate was harvested using NB Ca⁺⁺ as diluent, and the suspension adjusted to an absorbance of ca. 1.0. A 1% inoculum of this suspension in NB Ca⁺⁺ was grown to an absorbance of ca. 0.6, at 37°C. This suspension was concentrated 20:1 by centrifugation, and the concentrated organisms and serial tenfold dilutions in NB Ca⁺⁺ were used to inoculate 0.2 ml portions intraperitoneally into each of 5 mice (average weight 27 gm).

The results of this investigation gave an LD₅₀ of 2.9 x 10⁷ cfu, as determined by the procedure of Reed and Meunch (69).

LETHALITY OF ANTIBIOTICS FOR MICE, AND
OTHER CONTROL EXPERIMENTS.

Because of reports by Hamre et al. (30), Donovich and Rake (14), Farrar, Kent and Elliott (20) and Kelly and Silverman (39), that some antibiotics are lethal for mice, it was decided to determine to what extent this was true under the present experimental conditions.

Lethality of antibiotics for mice

Antibiotics were injected intraperitoneally into mice. Each antibiotic was contained in 0.2 ml of an aqueous solution, except in the case of chloramphenicol, where 0.5 ml and 0.2 ml of a 2×10^3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ aqueous solution was used. Three mice were inoculated at each dose level for each antibiotic.

The inoculation schedule and the results obtained are recorded in Table XVIII. In the doses used the antibiotics were not lethal for mice, no deaths occurring over a 6-day observation period.

Investigation of the toxicity of the supernatant from a broth culture of S. aureus 19.

In order to determine whether toxic products were involved, S. aureus 19 was grown to an absorbance of 0.5 at 37°C and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 30 minutes in an IEC Model K-2 centrifuge, and the supernatant removed. Five mice were inoculated intraperitoneally with 0.2 ml of the concentrated S. aureus 19 containing 8.8×10^9 cfu, and another 5

TABLE XVIII
LETHALITY OF ANTIBIOTICS FOR MICE

<u>Antibiotic</u>	<u>Dose (μg)</u>	<u>Death</u>
Penicillin	1000	0/3
	100	0/3
Oxacillin	2000	0/3
	200	0/3
Vancomycin	1000	0/3
	200	0/3
Chloramphenicol	1000	0/3
	400	0/3
Bacitracin	5000	0/3
	2000	0/3

mice, with 0.4 ml of the culture supernatant.

Observations of the animals after 24 hours showed no deaths among the animals receiving supernatant, and 100% deaths of animals receiving the concentrated cell suspension. The results thus show that the broth culture supernatant in a volume twice as large as that of S. aureus 19 suspensions used in this investigation was not lethal for mice, thus negating the possibility that the lethality of S. aureus 19 may be due to toxic products produced prior to inoculation.

Additional controls

A. Heat inactivated Ø7.

In order to strengthen the argument that any protection observed in mice infected with S. aureus 19 and treated with Ø7 lysate was due to the presence of active Ø7, the following was adopted.

A portion (ca. 5 ml) of Ø7 lysate was inactivated by exposure in a temperature block at 70°C for 90 minutes. This inactivated suspension was then used to treat mice immediately after infection with S. aureus 19.

The results of this experiment showed that all 10 of the animals treated with the inactivated Ø7 suspension died within 24 hours while unheated lysate was able to afford 70% protection.

B. Nutrient Broth (NB Ca⁺⁺).

An experiment using sterile NB Ca⁺⁺ to treat mice infected with S. aureus 19 showed that the broth afforded no protection.

ACTION AND INTERACTION OF S. AUREUS 19,
Ø7 AND ANTIBIOTICS IN MICE.

In vivo experiments were undertaken with S. aureus 19 to determine the extent of the interaction of this bacterial strain, Ø7, and antibiotics as revealed by changes in the mortality of infected animals.

Response of mice inoculated with S. aureus 19 to different doses of
antibiotics

The experiment to be described was conducted in order to determine what dose level of chloramphenicol, vancomycin, penicillin, and oxacillin were effective in protecting mice which had been inoculated intraperitoneally with S. aureus 19.

At each dose level of antibiotic 3 mice were inoculated intraperitoneally with 0.2 ml of concentrated S. aureus 19 suspension containing 1.3×10^9 cfu. Immediately thereafter, antibiotics in the doses indicated in Table XIX were also introduced intraperitoneally. The antibiotics were contained in 0.2 ml of an aqueous solution except in the case of chloramphenicol, where volumes ranging from 0.2 - 0.5 ml were employed.

The results, listed in Table XIX, show that 1000 µg of penicillin were able to protect one of the three mice infected with S. aureus 19; Oxacillin in a 2000 µg dose protected two of three mice, and 1000 µg vancomycin protected three of three. Observations on the mice were recorded after 24 hours, and the results did not change over a 3-day period.

TABLE XIX
RESPONSE OF MICE INFECTED WITH S. AUREUS 19
TO DIFFERENT DOSES OF ANTIBIOTICS.

<u>Antibiotic</u>	<u>Dose</u> (μ g)	Observations (1 - 3 days)	
		<u>Dead</u>	<u>Alive</u>
Chloramphenicol	1000	2	1
	800	3	0
	600	3	0
	400	3	0
Penicillin	1000	2	1
	100	3	0
	10	3	0
Oxacillin	2000	1	2
	200	1	2
	20	3	0
Vancomycin	1000	0	3
	200	1	2
	50	0	3

Infecting dose of S. aureus 19 1.3×10^9 cfu

The influence of Ø7 and each of the antibiotics chloramphenicol, vancomycin, penicillin, and oxacillin on the mortality of mice inoculated with S. aureus 19.

A number of experiments were performed to determine the extent to which the interaction of S. aureus 19, Ø7, and chloramphenicol, vancomycin, penicillin, and oxacillin affected the lethality of intraperitoneally inoculated S. aureus 19 for mice.

Two dose levels of each antibiotic and two dose levels of Ø7 were examined using the standard inoculum of S. aureus 19. The Ø:cell ratios studied were, for "low dose phage" ca. 3:1, and for "high dose phage" ca. 11:1. The antibiotic doses were as follows:

	Low dose (µg)	High dose (µg)
Chloramphenicol	200	1000
Vancomycin	50	200
Penicillin	10	1000
Oxacillin	20	2000

Each experiment included appropriate controls in which mice were infected with S. aureus 19 and no other treatment followed. Additional controls consisted of mice infected with S. aureus 19 and then treated with both high and low doses of Ø7, and high and low doses of each antibiotic.

Each experimental unit consisted of a randomized set of 10 mice. Using a 2.5 ml hypodermic syringe and 26G $\frac{1}{2}$ inch needle, a 0.2 ml inoculum of concentrated log phase suspension of S. aureus 19 containing

ca. 8.8×10^8 cfu was injected intraperitoneally into the right side of each animal. When Ø7 treatment, antibiotic treatment, or combined Ø7 and antibiotic treatment was required, it was administered intraperitoneally into the left side immediately after injection of the bacteria. Both the Ø7 dose and antibiotic dose were administered in 0.2 ml volume. For combined antibiotic and Ø7 treatment, the two agents were mixed together and also given in a 0.2 ml volume, except in the case of chloramphenicol, where 0.2 ml of Ø7 and antibiotic were injected separately, immediately after inoculation of each mouse with S. aureus 19.

The animals were observed for a 24-hour period and the results are presented in Tables XX, XXI, XXII, and XXIII under appropriate headings.

From the values of each of the Tables XX - XXII, the following interactions were tested for significance using the χ^2 statistic at the 95% level.

1. Infected mice vs Ø-treated mice.
2. Infected mice vs antibiotic-treated mice.
3. Infected mice vs antibiotic and Ø-treated mice.
4. Ø-treated mice vs antibiotic and Ø treated mice.
5. Antibiotic-treated vs antibiotic and Ø-treated mice.
6. Ø-treated vs antibiotic-treated mice.

The χ^2 values corresponding to the above interactions for each of Tables XX - XXIII are presented in Table XXIV.

TABLE XX

INTERACTION OF S. AUREUS 19, LOW-DOSE Ø7

AND LOW-DOSE ANTIBIOTIC IN MICE

<u>Antibiotic</u>	<u>Dose (μg)</u>	
Chloramphenicol	200	
Vancomycin	50	
Penicillin	10	
Oxacillin	20	
<u>Treatment of Mice</u>	<u>24-hour observation</u>	
	Dead	Alive
1. <u>S. aureus</u> 19	9	1
2. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + Ø7	4	6
3. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + chloramph.	10	0
4. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + chloramph. + Ø7	6	4
5. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + van.	5	5
6. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + van. + Ø7	2	8
7. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + pen.	10	0
8. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + pen. + Ø7	4	6
9. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + oxac.	9	1
10. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + oxac. + Ø7	8	2

Infecting dose of S. aureus 19 was ca. 8.8×10^8 cfu

Ø:cell ratio, ca. 3:1

TABLE XXI

INTERACTION OF S. AUREUS 19, HIGH-DOSE Ø7AND LOW-DOSE ANTIBIOTIC IN MICE.

<u>Antibiotic</u>	<u>Dose (µg)</u>
Chloramphenicol	200
Vancomycin	50
Penicillin	10
Oxacillin	20

<u>Treatment of mice</u>	<u>24-hour observation</u>	
	Dead	Alive
1. <u>S. aureus</u> 19	9	1
2. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + Ø7	2	8
3. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + chloramph.	10	0
4. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + chloramph. + Ø7	4	6
5. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + van.	5	5
6. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + van. + Ø7	2	8
7. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + pen.	9	1
8. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + pen. + Ø7	4	6
9. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + oxac.	8	2
10. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + oxac. + Ø7	0	10

Infecting dose of S. aureus 19 was ca 8.8×10^8 cfu
Ø:cell ratio, ca. 11:1

TABLE XXII

INTERACTION OF S. AUREUS 19, LOW DOSE Ø7
AND HIGH DOSE ANTIBIOTIC IN MICE.

<u>Antibiotics</u>	<u>Dose (μg)</u>
Chloramphenicol	1000
Vancomycin	200
Penicillin	1000
Oxacillin	2000
<u>Treatment of mice</u>	<u>24-hour observation</u>
	Dead Alive
1. <u>S. aureus</u> 19	9 1
2. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + Ø7	4 6
3. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + chloramph.	7 3
4. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + chloramph. + Ø7	2 8
5. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + van.	2 8
6. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + van. + Ø7	1 9
7. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + pen.	5 5
8. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + pen. + Ø7	2 8
9. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + oxac.	2 8
10. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + oxac. + Ø7	1 9

Infecting dose of S. aureus 19 was ca. 8.8×10^8 cfu
Ø:cell ratio, ca. 3:1

TABLE XXIII

INTERACTION OF S. AUREUS 19, HIGH DOSE Ø7
AND HIGH DOSE ANTIBIOTIC IN MICE

<u>Antibiotics</u>	<u>Dose (μg)</u>
Chloramphenicol	1000
Vancomycin	200
Penicillin	1000
Oxacillin	2000
<u>Treatment of mice</u>	<u>24-hour observation</u>
	Dead Alive
1. <u>S. aureus</u> 19	9 1
2. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + Ø7	3 7
3. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + chloramph.	4 6
4. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + chloramph. + Ø7	2 8
5. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + van.	3 7
6. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + van. + Ø7	2 8
7. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + pen.	7 3
8. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + pen. + Ø7	2 8
9. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + oxac.	2 8
10. <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + oxac. + Ø7	3 7

Infecting dose of S. aureus 19, ca. 8.8×10^8 cfu.
Ø:cell ratio, ca. 11:1

TABLE XXIV

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF TABLES XX - XXIII

Interaction		Adjusted 2			
		Table XX	Table XXI	Table XXII	Table XXIII
1. Infected vs Ø-treated mice		3.52ns	7.03**	3.52ns	5.20 *
2. Infected vs antibiotic-treated	Chloramph.	0.00	0.00 ^{ns}	0.31 ^{ns}	3.52
	Van.	2.14 ^{ns}	2.14 ^{ns}	7.27*	5.20*
	Pen.	0.00 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}	2.14 ^{ns}	0.31 ^{ns}
	Oxac.	0.00 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}	7.27**	7.27**
3. Infected vs antibiotic + Ø-treated	Chloramph.	1.07 ^{ns}	3.52 ^{ns}	7.27**	7.27**
	Van.	7.27**	7.27**	9.80**	7.27**
	Pen.	1.06 ^{ns}	3.52 ^{ns}	8.18**	7.27**
	Oxac.	0.00 ^{ns}	12.93**	9.80**	5.20*
4. Ø-treated vs antibiotic-Ø-treated	Chloramph.	0.20 ^{ns}	2.24 ^{ns}	0.24 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
	Van.	0.24 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}	1.07 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
	Pen.	0.00 ^{ns}	0.24 ^{ns}	0.24 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
	Oxac.	1.88 ^{ns}	0.56 ^{ns}	1.07 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
5. Antibiotic-treated vs antibiotic-Ø-treated	Chloramph.	2.81 ^{ns}	5.95*	3.23 ^{ns}	0.24 ^{ns}
	Van.	0.88 ^{ns}	0.88 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
	Pen.	5.95*	4.06*	1.06 ^{ns}	3.23 ^{ns}
	Oxac.	0.00 ^{ns}	10.21**	0.00 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
6. Ø-treated vs antibiotic-treated	Chloramph.	5.95*	10.21**	0.81 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
	Van.	0.00 ^{ns}	0.88 ^{ns}	0.24 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}
	Pen.	5.95*	7.27**	0.00 ^{ns}	1.80 ^{ns}
	Oxac.	3.52 ^{ns}	5.00*	0.24 ^{ns}	0.00 ^{ns}

 $\emptyset = \emptyset 7$ $ns =$ not significant $*$ = significant $** =$ highly significant

The χ^2 values for the interaction of $\phi 7$ treated and antibiotic $\phi 7$ treated mice from each of Tables XX - XXIII show that in no instance did the samples indicate a difference greater than could be attributed to chance. This leads to the conclusion that for the doses of antibiotic and $\phi 7$ used in these experiments to treat mice inoculated intraperitoneally with S. aureus 19, the results do not allow the interpretation that bacteriophage and antibiotic act additively or synergistically.

RATE OF DEATH OF MICE INOCULATED WITH S. AUREUS 19

AND THE INFLUENCE OF Ø7, ANTIBIOTICS AND
STAPHYLOCOCCAL ANTITOXIN.

Reports of reduced survival following delay in administration of bacteriophage to mice which had received a lethal intraperitoneal inoculum of S. aureus have been made by Bartell and co-workers (7, 8). Other studies seem to suggest that death within 24 hours in mice infected with S. aureus was due to toxic components and that the final outcome was determined at an early stage. Accordingly it was decided to examine some of these parameters as well as the extent to which chloramphenicol, vancomycin, penicillin, and oxacillin affect the time when infected mice died.

S. aureus 19, Ø7, penicillin interaction (time of death)

The first experiment in this series was performed using male mice (ca. 25 gm) 400 µg of penicillin, a standard inoculum of S. aureus 19 and Ø7 suspension yielding a Ø:cell ratio of ca. 3:1. The method of inoculation was the same as above.

The results showed that mice receiving the standard S. aureus 19 died early and at a rapid rate. The first death was recorded $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours post-infection and by 6 hours 9 of the 10 infected mice had died. The mice treated with Ø7 showed two deaths in 3 hours; no further deaths occurred within 3 days. Penicillin-treated mice showed a delay in the

onset of death, first deaths occurring 4 hours post-infection and proceeding at a slower rate until by 9 hours nine of the infected mice had died. Thus, although 400 µg of penicillin was able to prolong the survival of the mice for a few hours the number dead in 24 hours was unaltered. Combined penicillin and Ø7 treatment effected 100% survival of the animals. When the administration of Ø7 was delayed for 15 minutes, the onset and rate of death were delayed, but the number which died in 24 hours was only one less than the untreated controls.

The results of this experiment prompted further investigations which are reported below. Because of the lack of a sufficient number of male mice, females were used for the most part in these latter experiments. The responses of male and female mice to intraperitoneally inoculated S. aureus 19 and to treatment with Ø7 immediately following infection were compared, and served as controls for the other experimental units.

Comparison of the responses of male and female mice to intraperitoneal inoculation with S. aureus 19, and to immediate treatment with Ø7.

The method of inoculation and standard dose of S. aureus 19 was the same as before. The Ø:cell ratio used was ca. 10:1.

The results recorded in Table XXV (a) show 4 female and 6 male mice dead by 3½ hours, with 9 female mice dying in 4 hours and 9 males in 4½ hours. The final figures for 24 hours are 9 female and 10 male mice dead. The male series showed an early death which could probably be attributed to shock. The course of events using the male and female animals would therefore appear to be similar.

Rate of death in mice as influenced by the interaction of S. aureus 19, Ø7, and each of the antibiotics, chloramphenicol, vancomycin, penicillin, and oxacillin.

The Ø:cell ratio used was ca. 10:1, with the standard inoculum of S. aureus 19 of ca. 8.8×10^8 cfu. The antibiotic doses employed were: chloramphenicol - 600 µg, penicillin - 400 µg, and oxacillin - 1000 µg.

Results are recorded in Table XXVI.

For the antibiotics chloramphenicol, penicillin, vancomycin and oxacillin, there was a reduction in the death rate. It can also be seen (Table XXVI) in the case of chloramphenicol and penicillin that a 15-minute delay in the administration of Ø7 resulted in considerable loss of protection. Comparable observations for the vancomycin and oxacillin series were obscured by the high level of protection which these antibiotics by themselves afforded.

The effect of S. aureus 19 on antitoxin pre-treated mice.

In this experiment 10 mice were given intraperitoneally 500 units of staphylococcal antitoxin (Connaught, Canada), ca. 2½ hours before intraperitoneal challenge with S. aureus 19.

The results recorded in Table XXV (b) show that the onset of death was considerably delayed, since none of the mice died before 9 hours post-infection. However, by 15 hours, 7 animals died and this was increased to 8 at 24 hours.

TABLE XXV (a)

COMPARISON OF THE RESPONSE OF MALE AND FEMALE MICE TO INTRAPERITONEAL
INFECTION WITH S. AUREUS 19 AND TO IMMEDIATE TREATMENT WITH ϕ 7

Treatment	Hours								Days							
	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	6½	7	7½	8	8½	9	9½
♀ mice + <u>S. aureus</u> 19	10	10	10	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0 mice + <u>S. aureus</u> 19	9	9	9	6	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
♀ mice + <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + \emptyset 7	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
0 mice + <u>S. aureus</u> 19 + \emptyset 7	10	10	10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9

Phage:cell ratio, ca. 10:1

TABLE XXV (b)
THE EFFECT OF S. AUREUS 19 ON MICE PRE-TREATED WITH STAPHYLOCOCCAL ANTITOXIN

	Hours								Days							
	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	6½	7	7½	8	8½	9	15
Anti-alphatoxin pre-treated mice + <u>S. aureus</u> 19	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	3	2
															1	1

TABLE XXVI

RATE OF DEATH IN MICE AS INFLUENCED BY THE INTERACTION OF S. AUREUS 19
Ø7 AND EACH OF THE ANTIBIOTICS CHLORAMPHENICOL, VANCOMYCIN,
PENICILLIN, AND OXACILLIN

Post-infection survivors

Treatment	Hours									Days							
	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	6½	7	7½	8	8½	9	1	2
Chloramph., 600 µg	10	10	10	10	9	7	6	4	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Chloramph. + Ø7	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	8	8	8
Chloramph. + Ø7, 15 min. later	10	10	10	10	10	10	7	5	5	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	3
Van., 100 µg	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Van. + Ø7	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Van. + Ø7, 15 min. later	10	10	10	10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
Pen., 400 µg	10	10	9	8	6	4	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
Pen. + Ø7	10	10	10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
Pen. + Ø7, 15 min. later	10	10	10	9	8	7	5	4	3	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
Oxac., 1000 µg	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	9	8
Oxac. + Ø7	10	10	10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
Oxac. + Ø7, 15 min. later	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	109.

Ø:cell ratio, 10:1

DISCUSSION OF IN VIVO INVESTIGATIONS.

S. aureus PS7 given intraperitoneally to 20 - 30 gm mice was found to be relatively innocuous. An inoculum in the order of 10^{10} cfu was required to kill the animals. This dose was far in excess of that ($1 - 2 \times 10^9$ cfu) for S. aureus phage type 80/81 found by Muir and Blakemore (60) and by Bartell et al. (7) to kill more than 80% of mice.

Prompted by an early observation of Van de Velde (93), viz. that in vivo passage of an organism may increase its virulence, S. aureus PS7 was subjected to successive intraperitoneal transfer in mice. No augmentation of virulence of this staphylococcal strain for mice by the intraperitoneal route was obtained. In the light of this, a number of other staphylococcal isolates were examined for their lethality to mice and of these, S. aureus strain 19 was selected for further study, since it had an LD₅₀ of 2.9×10^7 cfu and possessed an antibiotic sensitivity spectrum similar to that of S. aureus PS7. In addition strain 19 was able to act as host for Ø7 with an EOP of 83% relative to strain PS7.

An infecting dose (8.8×10^8 cfu) of strain 19 given intraperitoneally was found to kill 9 of 10 mice in 4 - 6 hours. This result is comparable to the observations of Smith et al. (85) who obtained 8 - 9 deaths from groups of 10 mice intraperitoneally infected with 10^{7-8} cfu of S. aureus (Smith and Dubos 1956) and of Muir and Blakemore (60) who obtained 96% death in 5 - 6 hours when mice infected with

1 - 2 x 10⁹ cfu of a strain of S. aureus of phage type 80/81.

Many staphylococcal products have been correlated with virulence, but despite the implication of some of these in disease production, there is as yet no evidence to pinpoint the precise mechanism involved in producing death in experimentally infected animals, or in associating it with any single biochemical event. The delay in the onset of death which was observed when mice were pre-treated with staphylococcus antitoxin is in agreement with the observations of Kapral (33) and of Mathieu et al. (56). Kapral (33) has also obtained death in mice by the administration of purified alpha-toxin and has demonstrated that mutants of S. aureus unable to produce alpha toxin in vitro showed marked reduction in lethality for mice. Moreover he has demonstrated that an amount of toxin equivalent to the LD₅₀ for pre-formed alpha-toxin could be produced in 3 - 6 hours by the initial dose of cocci which were lethal to mice, and that for the production of alpha-toxin, bacteria must be actively dividing. This latter observation is at variance with the reported results of Mathieu et al. (56) who, using a thymineless mutant of S. aureus Wood 46 which did not multiply in the peritoneal cavity, were still able to obtain delayed death in mice by pre-treatment with anti-toxin. While these observations suggest that toxins, and in particular alpha toxin, are important factors in the lethality of S. aureus they do not in themselves provide an entirely satisfactory explanation of the mechanisms by which death is inflicted.

Penicillin, oxacillin, vancomycin, and chloramphenicol in the

doses used in this investigation were not lethal for mice. Usually in the assessment of drug toxicity many other parameters are examined, e.g. the effect on erythropoetic, kidney, and liver functions as well as on other biological phenomena. In the present investigation however, quick deaths within 24 hours were of primary concern.

As was expected, the degree of protection in mice intraperitoneally infected with strain 19 improved with increasing doses of antibiotic. An observation worthy of comment is the high level of protection afforded by vancomycin as compared with penicillin, despite the much greater effectiveness of the latter antibiotic in vitro. A possible explanation for this may lie in the greater binding and hence reduced effectiveness of penicillin by proteins in vivo. The relative insolubility of chloramphenicol in aqueous solution, as well as its rapid inactivation and excretion, as shown by Glazko et al. (24), may provide an explanation for its relative ineffectiveness in the doses used.

Although the χ^2 test for the interaction of Ø-treated and antibiotic + Ø-treated mice for each of Tables XX - XXIII show in no instance a difference greater than could be attributed to chance, a closer look at the experimental results, in particular those of Tables XXII and XXIII, seem to suggest that there may indeed be some interaction of Ø and antibiotic leading to addition of protective action. In Table XXII the number of mice surviving after antibiotic plus Ø7 treatment, was for each experimental unit greater than for Ø7 or for antibiotic alone. Except for the case of oxacillin in Table XXIII, where there was one less

survivor for oxacillin plus \emptyset 7, the number of survivors for \emptyset 7 plus antibiotic treatment was greater than for either antibiotic or \emptyset 7 alone. One is therefore inclined to the conclusion that while the results of the experiments performed do not prove interaction of antibiotics and \emptyset 7 provide augmented protection in mice intraperitoneally infected with S. aureus 19, some results nevertheless suggest that such an interaction may be present but that the size of the individual samples may have been too small to demonstrate this unequivocally.

There is ample evidence in the literature that bacteriophages can traverse many anatomical barriers. Keller and Engley (38) have shown that a Bacillus megaterium phage can pass through the gut and even through the apparently intact skin of mice and be recovered from the blood. Nungester and Watrous (65) have demonstrated the accumulation of intravenously injected staphylococcal \emptyset in the spleen and liver of rats. Keller and Engley (38) have also shown the presence of intraperitoneally inoculated B. megaterium \emptyset in the blood, spleen, liver, lungs, and brain of mice. Additional evidence for the in vivo translocation of \emptyset particles is presented by Schultz and Neva (80), who were able to find T2 coliphage in urine of intravenously inoculated mice, and by Schultz and Frohlich (80) who found T5 coliphage in the spinal fluid of dogs after intravenous injection. In addition, in vivo interaction of \emptyset and bacteria has been conclusively demonstrated by Bartell et al. (6).

When \emptyset 7 is introduced intraperitoneally immediately after an

infecting dose of S. aureus 19, it is readily apparent how the bacterial inoculum could be reduced below its critical fatal level and result in an increase in the number of surviving animals. What is not so apparent, however, is why a delay of as little as 15 minutes should so effectively abolish this protection. In the experiments where the addition of Ø7 was delayed, a high level of protection was afforded when 100 µg vancomycin and 1000 µg oxacillin were used, whereas a low level of protection was afforded when 600 µg chloramphenicol and 400 µg penicillin were used - where protection was high for antibiotic alone, it was high for antibiotic plus delayed Ø7, and where low for antibiotic alone, it was also low for antibiotic plus Ø7. Viewed together these observations suggest that 15 minutes after intraperitoneal inoculation a sufficient number of staphylococci are isolated in such a manner that they are still accessible to diffusing antibiotic but inaccessible to Ø7. The most likely explanation is suggested by the observations of Kapral (34) and other workers, that after intraperitoneal inoculation, coagulase-positive staphylococci quickly form clumps due to the reaction of bound coagulase and fibrinogen in the peritoneal fluid. The clumps become surrounded by leucocytes already present in the peritoneal cavity. This clumping phenomenon, as well as the mechanical obstruction provided by fibrin formation and adhering leucocytes, may serve to reduce effective interaction of bacteria with Ø7 administered later so that the infecting inoculum is not diminished below its critical level, as would otherwise occur if

both agents were administered simultaneously. Bacteria, however, apparently remain accessible to diffusible antibiotic molecules.

IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The interaction of the antibiotics penicillin, D-cycloserine, vancomycin, bacitracin, and chloramphenicol with Ø7 and S. aureus PS7 was investigated in vitro. A complementary in vivo investigation was conducted using Ø7, S. aureus strain 19 and the antibiotics penicillin, oxacillin, chloramphenicol and bacitracin.

Summary

In vitro

In vitro investigation led to the following findings.

- (1) The growth of Ø7 with S. aureus PS7 in Ca⁺⁺ supplemented nutrient broth at 37°C resulted in a burst size of ca. 95; 120 minutes after infection there was a 140-fold increase in titrable Ø.
- (2) Penicillin, D-cycloserine, and vancomycin in concentrations of 10 µg/ml, 100 µg/ml, and 100 µg/ml respectively caused a considerable reduction in Ø yield, the amount of titrable Ø 120 minutes after infection being 2, 3, and 5 times the input. With 100 µg/ml bacitracin and 20 µg/ml chloramphenicol the titrable Ø 120 minutes after infection was only ½ the input.
- (3) The adsorption of Ø7 to S. aureus PS7 was rapid and ca. 95% completed in 5 minutes.
- (4) The adsorption of S. aureus PS7 was not affected by the presence of penicillin, D-cycloserine, bacitracin, vancomycin, chloramphenicol or

oxacillin added 1 minute before Ø7 and present during the adsorption period.

(5) The addition of penicillin and D-cycloserine in growth-inhibiting concentrations to Ø-infected S. aureus PS7 suspensions, together with, or shortly after, Ø infection, did not inhibit rapid lysis of the bacterial suspensions. On the contrary, lysis was speeded up.

(6) Bacitracin and vancomycin added together with Ø7 caused inhibition of rapid lysis of S. aureus PS7, the effect of vancomycin being more pronounced.

(7) Pre-treatment of S. aureus PS7 with penicillin, D-cycloserine, vancomycin and bacitracin caused inhibition of rapid lysis of the staphylococci by Ø7. This effect was greatest for vancomycin and least for penicillin, and was more evident the longer the interval between addition of antibiotic and the later addition of Ø7.

(8) In contrast to the different degrees of lysis of S. aureus PS7 by Ø7 in the presence of penicillin, D-cycloserine, vancomycin and bacitracin, chloramphenicol caused virtually complete inhibition of lysis when added before Ø7, together with Ø7, or up to 30 minutes after Ø7.

In vivo.

(1) S. aureus PS7 was not lethal for mice by the intraperitoneal route, and increased virulence was not obtained as a result of successive intraperitoneal transfers.

(2) The LD₅₀ for log-phase S. aureus strain 19 for 20 - 30 gm mice by the intraperitoneal route was 2.9 x 10⁷ cfu.

- (3) Male and female mice responded similarly to intraperitoneal inoculation with S. aureus 19.
- (4) Intraperitoneal inoculation of Ø7 immediately after intraperitoneal inoculation of S. aureus 19 was effective in increasing the number of animals which survived.
- (5) Withholding Ø7 treatment for 15 minutes abolished its protective action for mice previously inoculated intraperitoneally with S. aureus 19.
- (6) Pre-treatment of mice with 500 units of antistaphylococcal anti-toxin caused a delay in the onset of death in mice subsequently infected with S. aureus 19 but did not significantly influence the final number which died.
- (7) Statistical analysis of the results did not reveal any obvious interaction of Ø7 and antibiotics where animal survival was concerned. Some results did suggest that such an interaction may have been present although it was obscured because of the small size of the sample units used in these experiments.

CONCLUSION

The question whether \emptyset and antibiotic interact to produce any augmentation of antibacterial activity is exceedingly complex. It is little wonder therefore that the problem has so far been attacked only in broad general terms and that as a result very little definitive information has been obtained. Even in those instances where attempts have been made to provide an answer based on empirical observation of the lysis of bacterial suspensions in vitro, or of the mortality rate of infected animals, the results have proved difficult to interpret.

The present investigation confirms the observations of previous workers such as Krueger (43) and Elford (18) that penicillin-treated bacterial suspensions could be made to lose their turbidity in the presence of \emptyset earlier than would have been the case with either agent alone. This investigation also shows that similar results were obtained for D-cycloserine, and for vancomycin and bacitracin if these latter antibiotics were added at appropriate intervals after \emptyset . Viewed in broad general terms, therefore, there is no hesitation in concluding that antibiotic and \emptyset can be made to affect bacterial suspensions additively.

Penicillin, D-cycloserine, vancomycin and bacitracin have both growth-inhibiting and lytic properties, as does \emptyset . There is, however, overwhelming support for the contention that antibiotics are more likely to inhibit than to augment \emptyset activity. For these four antibiotics which affect muerin synthesis, it may be expected that some weakening of the

cell wall structure would occur, and the contribution of this to facilitating lysis by ϕ 7 would be expected to be influenced by any adverse effects on ϕ activity which the antibiotics may possess. Where additive action of ϕ and antibiotic was demonstrated it seems likely that the major portion of this lytic activity was associated with the ϕ , the antibiotic acting mainly to prevent further bacterial growth so that there were fewer bacteria to lyse and hence earlier clearing of bacterial suspensions was observed.

The in vivo investigations in mice did not reveal significant interaction of ϕ 7 and antibiotics leading to additive protection from intraperitoneal infection with S. aureus strain 19. The results do however suggest that if a sufficiently large number of animals were tested, such an interaction may be revealed.

In conclusion, it would be remiss not to reiterate the generally accepted but often ignored truism that conclusions in regard to the antibacterial activity of antimicrobial agents in vitro, while giving some indication of the responses which may be expected, cannot be unreservedly transposed to the in vivo situation. In particular, the numerous humoral and cellular immunological mechanisms which are known to be involved in the defence of an infected animal must always be considered. Their evaluation is however made more difficult by the fact that experimentally they can neither be readily included in vitro, nor excluded in vivo.

V

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LITERATURE CITED

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VI

APPENDIX

Appendix 1

Antibiotics Used and Their Source

1. Penicillin G. (Potassium)
Ayerst Laboratories, Montreal, Canada.
2. Seromycin (D-cycloserine)
Eli Lilly and Co., Indianapolis, U.S.A.
3. Vancomycin (Sulfate)
Potency standard 962 units/mg
Eli Lilly and Co., Indianapolis, U.S.A.
4. Bacitracin
Secondary: Ref. Standard
Eli Lilly and Co., Indianapolis, U.S.A.
5. Chloramphenicol
Parke, Davis and Co. Ltd.
Montreal, Canada.
6. Oxacillin (Sodium)
Potency, 900 μ g/mg
Bristol Laboratories, Syracuse, N.Y., U.S.A.

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